

The Modern Language Journal

Volume XXV

MAY, 1941

Number 8

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(An index for the periodical year is published annually. Beginning with its inception in 1929, *Educational Index* covers the subject-matter of the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL.)

Published by

The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers

The Modern Language Journal

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NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the *Journal*, does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The *Journal* is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.

The Gift of Speech and the Brain

EDWARD PODOLSKY, M.D.

Brooklyn, New York

(*Author's summary.*—The gift of speech is localized in the brain. The greater part of the speech mechanism is in the temporal lobe. Destruction of this vital center abolishes the ability to speak intelligently. Speech is an elaborate process involving many types of brain action. It is also an index of brain efficiency.)

ONE of the characteristics that distinguishes man from other living creatures is the ability to speak, to express his thoughts vocally, to give voice to his feelings and emotions. The ability to talk, to talk sentimentally, has developed coincidentally with the ability to think. For thinking is required before talking is attempted. One has to form his thoughts in his mind before giving voice to his thoughts. And similarly before giving voice to his thoughts, he has to gather them and form them effectively.

It is a curious thing about speech. The larynx and vocal cords are used primarily for purposes of speech, but they were not evolved primarily for this purpose. A much simpler organ would have sufficed for the bare vocal needs of man. Thus it is only by the exercise of his intelligence that man is able to make use of his speech organs. During his evolution his intellect was in advance of his command of speech but it enabled him to adopt the organs already evolved for other purposes. The ability to converse with his fellow-man and to exchange ideas gave in return an increased impetus to the development of his intellectual powers. Although early man was provided with all the necessary requirements for speech as modern man uses it, his intelligence was of too low an order to allow his taking much advantage of his physical possibilities. It is a most fascinating thought that when man learned to speak he also learned to think in a more ordered fashion. The development of mentation and of vocalization was a late and very important factor in the development of the human brain.

The nature of the structure and function of the language mechanism in the human brain has been debated for the last seventy-five years. The earliest view was that certain functions were localized in the cortex of the brain and more specifically in definite areas known as "centers." In 1861 when anatomists were first beginning to assign various functions to different parts of the brain, Dr. Broca described the posterior portion of the left lower frontal gyrus as the center of speech in the brain. Soon after Dr. Hughlings Jackson began a series of case studies on speech and speech defects. Dr. Jackson was opposed to the idea of centers. He stressed the importance of appreciating the psychic concomitants of nervous activity and integrations in speech function and he refused to localize speech in any particular part of the brain.

The development of the concept of speech centers continued, however, and other anatomists advanced the idea that the upper temporal gyrus was an auditory speech center and that the occipital or back lobe of the brain was a visual speech center. The presence of several other speech centers has been postulated. Involvement of any or all of these centers in a diseased condition has been thought to result in deficiencies of the language function.

In the last twenty years certain brain anatomists have attempted to break away from the theory of localization of function in the various parts of the cortex of the brain. It is their belief that the cortex does not function in centers or parts but that it functions as a whole. There is no universal agreement among brain students as to what parts of the brain has to do with speech. Thus, according to Dr. Henry Head, the function of language involves sensori-motor neural arcs that are found in widely separated parts of the nervous system. The cortical areas are considered as groups of neurons that helped to form complicated neural arcs. As a concomitant of physiological activation of these patterns (engramms) there is a psychological symbolization of ideas and feelings in terms of objects and situations in the environment. These complex patterns which are used in language, are funneled toward the efferent sides of the neural arcs. The expression of these patterns results in vocalizing, writing, gesturing, etc, on the basis of the previously conditioned symbolizations.

Talking or vocalization is a function that involved the activity of certain effectors. The various parts of the adjustor mechanism which may be focused on these effectors have very complicated relationships. In the following paragraphs an attempt will be made to outline them.

The part of the adjustor in the cerebral cortex that is nearest to the effectors for vocalization are the extra-pyramidal and pyramidal upper motor neurones. The cell bodies of these neurones lie, for the most part if not entirely in the frontal lobe. Dr. Penfield found that by electrical stimulation vocalization could be elicited from areas on the precentral gyrus behind the upper posterior end of the inferior frontal gyrus.

Studies on the significance of the frontal lobe by Dr. Brickner have led him to believe that the essential function of the frontal part of the brain is a process of elaborate association or synthesis into complex structures of the simpler engrammic products which are associated in the posterior part of the brain. In the case of vocalization it is probable that these engrammic products are elaborated in the temporal, occipital and parietal lobes.

There is knowledge of the sound of words, the sight of words and the tactile and muscle-tendon "feel" of words. It appears that these components are associated in the general sensory association cortex of the parietal lobe and then some of the patterns are carried to the frontal cortex for more elaborate association or building up. In the frontal lobe these "premotor" patterns are associated with various other somatic motor patterns such as

facial expression, gestures and poses, and possibly with visceral patterns of behavior through frontal-hypothalamic connections.

There are two temporal lobes in the brain, and it is believed that the majority of individuals have a dominant and non-dominant temporal lobe. The dominant lobe is the one opposite to the hand that is being constantly used. In right-handed persons the dominant lobe is on the left side of the brain. This is a factor of great importance in the matter of speech. Dr. Cheshier was the first to suggest that while the language area of the brain is at first equally divided between the two lobes, it shifts in early childhood to either right or left hemisphere of the brain. In right-handed persons the left side of the brain is the dominant one in speech production. In left-handed persons, it is the right lobe of the brain.

Dr. Dwight M. Palmer made a thorough study of a case of a man who suffered an injury to both temporal lobes through the blocking off of blood vessels supplying vital areas. This in time brought about softening in the lobes with a destruction of function. This brought about interesting changes in the man's ability to speak, that is to speak intelligently. He could make sounds, but they were a meaningless jumble of sounds. He had also lost the important recognition of the sound of his own voice.

Thus language making and brain function are very closely allied. When only one area of the brain, that is the non-dominant temporal lobe suffers injury there is a reduction in the ability to speak. But there still remains the dominant temporal lobe. He is still able to speak. However, when the injury to the brain is extensive, when it involves both areas of the speech mechanism, that is, the two temporal lobes, this leads to a break-up of language patterns and this in turn deprives the individual of the mechanism which is required to bring together the word symbols that form the abstract ideas which are basic to thinking. Thus when this injury occurs there occurs first a destruction of the ability to think symbolically and then the ability to think vocally.

Time Allotment for Foreign-Language Study: Internéçine Competition or Conciliatory Compromise

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(*Author's summary.*—Educationists and administrators criticize foreign language study as offering little value to most American pupils; foreign language teachers protest in resolutions and demand more time. Enrollments are studied in public and private secondary schools; in 1200 rural schools in comparison with other subjects. A school principal plans his curriculum to do justice to competing subject areas. "General education" versus special subjects; general science and general language. Foreign language study should compete, not on a utilitarian basis, but as a language "art." As such, like other arts, there may well be appreciation courses for non-performers, limited-objective courses for amateur performers and all the traffic can bear for artist performers.)

IF THE claims of language teachers are accepted, and foreign languages continue to *consume the time* that has been traditionally given them in the past, it will be very difficult to build up a program of general education to include the new courses that have been recommended as desirable."¹ (Italics in the quotations are mine.)

"Resolved, that this Association protests the persistent efforts of a few educational leaders, commissions, Professors of Education, and educational administrators, to *decry the teaching* of 'exact and exacting' studies, of Mathematics and Science, of History and English and Foreign Languages, all of which contribute to understanding of the world in which we live and at the same time help to provide knowledge and skill vital to any program of national defense."²

"Evidence to the effect that small high schools *fail to prepare youth for better living* is found in the fact that four out of five of these schools are *still devoting much time* to the ancient and foreign languages. By far the greatest number of the non-English language courses offered the rural youth are in Latin—French is found to be next in number of offerings. Schools offering instruction in the modern languages are evidently not aiming at ability to read and speak in these languages. For the most part, they offer but one or two years in each, *a period too short as they are taught* to learn to read or speak in any of them. Even more important, pupils studying such courses

¹ Graham, Ben and others, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, American Youth Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., 1940, 36 pp., 25¢ p. 29. [See review in this issue, page 655 ff.].

² Doyle, Henry G., Resolution adopted by Association of M. L. Teachers of Middle States, November 23, 1940; endorsed by other language bodies; see *French Review*, p. 252, January 1941; or *Modern Language Journal*, p. 388, January 1941.

have little occasion to use these languages if they should master them."³

Why, asks the foreign-language teacher, must my subject be singled out in a demand for "mastery" and condemned because we "offer but one or two years," a time too short for mastery? Do pupils reach *mastery* of a science, or of a fine art, or of a physical sport? No; there we expect only amateur performance. As a matter of fact, if Mr. Gaumnitz will consult the reading norms of current standardized tests he will see good amateur performance (and better) after two years high school (or one year college) study where that skill has been a specific aim; speaking belongs in the artist stage of performance. Every administrator knows that we are not content to end with two years of study; give us three years of non-competitive time to concentrate on one language and we'll produce in our best students the first stages of artist performance.

"The ideal should be not merely residual or 'surrender' values, but *actual mastery* of a foreign language, not only for reading and understanding but for speaking and writing as well. To attain this, the current inadequate course (usually only two years) must yield to a program of instruction geared to the achievement desired: a *minimum of six years*, beginning at least as early as the first year of junior high school (grade VII) and continuing through the senior high school (grade XII) available to all students capable of doing the work . . . *With adequate time* to develop all the language skills no objective will need to be stressed at the expense of others. All will be developed side by side, reinforcing each other and rounding out the whole program logically and coherently."⁴

Now where are we? School officials say that foreign language study gets too much of the pupils' time; that even then they do not master the subject matter; that if they did, there is little occasion to use it. Language teachers protest in resolution and in print (and Doyle is only a vigorous spokesman for his much alarmed profession) at the implication of wasted time, and they counter with a demand for three times the allotment of pupil time in order to do an adequate job. Now here is strong competition; do both sides refer to *all* the pupils? The school men speak for *most* pupils in the *present* courses as they are taught; Doyle speaks for "all students capable of doing the work." Obviously here is serious conflict and a compromise must be reached.

Now what are the facts? How much pupil time does foreign language study get? To be facetious, one might say: "Time is of the essence!" Give us thrice the time and we'll *produce* with present practices; to keep as much time as we have, we must change practices or change clientele; if we receive even less time, what shall we do?

³ Gaumnitz, Walter H., Senior Specialist in Rural Education Problems, U. S. Office of Education, "Rural Youth and Secondary Education," *School Life*, January 1941.

⁴ H. G. Doyle, article on page D5 of *New York Times*, Sunday, January 19, 1941.

To study time allotment we consider the number of schools (as to size and organization) and the number of pupils who are studying the subject, —both with respect to total school populations. The grade placements of the pupils tell us the range of continuance. From the last available national report, that of 1934,⁵ we have the following percentages:

I. Percentages of High School Populations Studying Foreign Languages

Year	1890	1895	1900	1905	1910	1915	1922	1928	1934
Latin	34.7	44.0	50.6	50.2	49.0	37.8	27.5	22.0	16.0
All Mod. Langs.	16.4	17.9	22.1	29.4	34.3	35.6	27.4	25.4	19.7

Adding all the languages together, the proportion of pupils runs from 51 per cent in 1890 to a peak of 83 per cent in 1910. The modern languages and Latin were equal in 1922; the total dropped back to 50 per cent probably about 1924 (you will remember that the Wheeler⁶ report for the M.L. Study in 1925 had 23 per cent in Latin and 25 per cent in the modern languages) and down to 36 per cent in 1934. It may go below 30 per cent or even 25 per cent when the 1940 report comes out, if we drop as we did between the last two reports. This being the national situation, what is the most favored portion?

We might guess that private schools, having highly select pupils and definite college entrance purposes, have the highest time allotment. In 1925 Wheeler heard from 1155 private secondary schools, which number is about one-eighth of the public schools and they enroll one-twentieth as many pupils. All but 49 schools offered Latin and nearly four-fifths offered French; one third offered three languages and nearly as many four languages; there was more Greek than in all the public schools. Compare Wheeler's figures on French in the public and private schools in 1925: (a) as to year of beginning and (b) as to degree of continuance thru four years.

While nearly three times as many pupils started French in the 7th grade of the private school as of the public school, there were nearly as many who waited till the 12th grade, getting only one year; only a few less got but a two-year course starting in Grade 11. And to upset Doyle's hopes for a six-year sequence, only 6 per cent of the private school pupils were in a fourth year, and this where the conflict is perhaps least with other subjects.

In many respects New York City has the most favorable foreign language situation among public school systems. In April 1939 E. B. de Sauzé found it ranked first in percentage of total foreign language enrollment of

⁵ Jessen, C. A. and Herlihy, L. B., "Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects, 1933-34," Washington, D. C., U. S., Office, of Education, Bulletin, 1938, No. 6, 15f.

⁶ Wheeler, C. A., *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages* (Vol. IV, Pub. A.C.C.M.L.) Macmillan, 1928.

II. (a) Percentages of Total Number of French Students Enrolled in Their First Year of Study, Distributed as to Grades

Grades	7	8	9	10	11	12	7-9	10-12
Public Secondary	3.7	9.3	28.9	30.9	24.3	2.9	21.9	78.1
Private Secondary	10.0	12.7	29.8	27.1	17.8	2.6	52.5	47.5

(b) Percentages of Total Number of French Students, Distributed as Enrolled in Their 1st, 2d, 3d and 4th Years of Study

Year of Study	1	2	3	4	1-2	3-4	5th
Public Secondary	55.5	32.0	11.0	1.5	87.5	12.5	
Private Secondary	48.5	29.7	15.8	5.9	78.2	21.7	0.1

twelve cities, both senior and junior high schools (60 and 43 per cent respectively).⁷

In a table published in 1937⁸ the writer showed the shift of the New York City enrollments from 1917 (when it was 103 per cent of the high school population) to 1936 (when it was only 61 per cent; a drop of 42 per cent in

III. Shifts in Distribution of the Foreign Language Enrollment in New York City Senior High Schools During 23 Years

Year	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Latin	Ratio to School Population
1917	23.2	27.1	0.1	25.3	24.3	103
1920	30.7	0.1	0.2	45.6	23.4	90
1925	35.8	5.9	1.2	29.3	27.8	81
1936	45.5	10.6	5.1	24.3	14.5	61*
1940	43.7	8.0	7.2	25.6	13.8	57*

* In 1936 there were 1539 students of Hebrew; in 1940 there were 2714, 1.7% of the enrollment.

twenty years.) In 1940⁹ there was a 57 per cent enrollment in senior high schools, and 40 per cent of the junior high school pupils (of whom nearly three-fourths were in French) were taking foreign languages. Compare in

⁷ Cleveland Board of Education, 2 mimeo pages. The cities after New York in order of rank are: *Senior High Schools*—Cincinnati, Baltimore, San Francisco, Boston, Philadelphia, Buffalo, St. Louis, Cleveland, Chicago, Detroit, Pittsburgh; *Junior*—Baltimore, Boston, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Cleveland.

⁸ Cole, R. D. and Tharp, J. B., *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, Appleton-Century Co., 1937, page 17. Those figures (for senior high schools) were taken from the June (or January) 1934 issue of *High Points*, which gives enrollments from 1917-34, plus later reports for 1935 and 1936.

⁹ See *High Points* for May-June 1940; reprinted in January 1941 *French Review*.

the table the shifts in languages: the almost even balance among four languages in 1917, the debacle in German and the mushrooming of Spanish in 1920; Spanish back to pre-war size by 1936 but French up to the 1920 peak of Spanish and nearly holding its own in 1940; German off again; Latin gradually slipping—a 50 per cent loss in the ten years 1925–36; Italian's gradual growth, almost equal to German by 1940; as much Hebrew in 1940 as there was Italian in 1925.

Now, coming back to Doyle's desire for a six-year program,—here where there is a six-language offering (seven! for there were 38 Greek students in 1940) and where 51 per cent of the pupils from grades 8 to 12 are taking advantage of it,—how does the appeal last? How many stay for the sixth or even the fifth year?

IV. Distribution by Semester Terms of French Enrollment in New York
City Secondary Schools in March, 1940

(a) Junior High Schools (40% of total enrollment)

Grade*	8A	8B	9A	9B	RB	RC	RD
Percents	18.4	19.0	17.6	16.8	10.6	8.4	9.2

* The 4-term program (8A–9B) may be accomplished in 3 terms (RB–C–D) by superior pupils.

(b) Senior High Schools (57% of total enrollment)

Grade	9		10		11		12	
Term*	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Percents	12.5	14.6	24.8	22.9	12.3	11.3	0.9	0.7

* The work of the first two terms may be done in the 4-term or 3-term junior high setup, from which pupils advance to Term III.

The writer cannot be sure that the above is a fair interpretation of the enrollments; nothing is conveyed of the relative achievements of the 4-, 3-, or 2-term systems for doing the first year's work when started in the 8th or 9th grades. There probably have to be adjustments during Term III, but here are 63.5 per cent of the pupils doing first-year work and 87.4 per cent of the pupils completing only the two-year course; one-eighth take a third year; one-hundredth stay for a fourth. This is no better than the national distribution of French in 1934: Grades 7–8, 1.2 per cent; 9th, 50.0 per cent; 10th, 36.0 per cent; 11th, 9.3 per cent; 12th, 1.5 per cent.

What we shall say in a later article about the qualifications of teachers applies in small degree here in New York City where high salaries and good tenure provide a long waiting list of excellent teachers. Thus we see that one of the spots that seem most fertile for enrollment growth is just at the national average; moreover, private schools, much less combatted by cur-

ricular trends, have barely a 10 per cent edge on this big city in pupils beyond the second year.

It would seem that small rural schools would be less favorably situated for foreign language study and so they are, for the length of course and the range of language offerings. But whether it is because of a time lag between curriculum makers and curriculum administrators or the sheer inertia of tradition, there persists enough foreign language study in these schools to provoke the complaint of Mr. Gaumnitz of the U. S. Office of Education of whose conception of "preparing youth for better living" we shall have something to say. Consider in the table below the competition against the "vocational subjects known to have a wide, practical interest to the rural youth,"¹⁰ in 1934 in 1238 representative high schools located in centers of 2500 or fewer population,— "schools with few teachers where the demands upon the time and energy of the staff are so great that the work provided is apt to be formal both in content and presentation."¹⁰

V. Percent of Rural High Schools, by Size Groups, Offering One or More Subjects in the Various Subject-Matter Fields

Subject-Matter Fields	Size of high schools by number of pupils enrolled					All rural high schools
	40 or fewer	41-75	76-150	151-300	Over 300	
Ancient and modern foreign languages	58	77	80	92	99	80
English	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mathematics	99	99	99	100	100	100
Social Science	100	100	100	100	99	100
Science	96	96	100	100	99	98
Physical Education	39	47	48	43	52	45
Fine Arts	31	39	45	59	70	47
Industrial Arts	19	23	18	31	60	27
Commercial Arts	61	60	76	83	89	74
Agriculture	19	30	38	47	41	35
Home Economics	19	35	49	67	74	47

Pretend you are a principal of one of these schools: how would you allot pupil time in a six-hour day in a four-year program, grades 9-12? Will you be moved by the fact that only three-fourths of the pupils who completed grade work have entered your high school (although this ratio is twice what it was ten years ago); that only one-third of those who enter will stay to graduate; that of those who finish your courses, less than one in twelve will go to college?

What will you consider "constants"—subjects to be carried in all

¹⁰ Gaumnitz article in *School Life*, January 1941.

grades? Of the "variables" competing for the balance of the day, which are "enriching and continuing" subjects and which are "practical, vocational and immediate?" Will you divide the day into six hour-periods or into eight 45-minute-periods, and how many periods should a pupil give to classes?

You decide: English is certainly a 4-year constant; in a democracy of socially-minded people *social studies* (history, civics, geography, economics, sociology: how they crowd in, as "subjects"!) should be constant; a world of mechanics and science needs *science* (physical and natural; and mathematics fits in here); here are three periods used up thruout the whole four years. What shall the pupil "elect" for his fourth, perhaps fifth period? For his body, *physical education*; for his soul, *fine arts* and *music*; for his mind, a *foreign language*; for his job, call it "career" if you will, *agriculture* and *industrial arts* for the boys; *home economics* and *commercial arts* for the girls. And here you have five to nine areas of activity competing for one or, at best, two school periods—for, I, as a parent, would not want my child taking more than five American subjects at a time.

You reason with yourself: must the child exercise his body every day? Doesn't he get enough in his chores or by dashing here and there in play? If he is sickly or crippled, you can put him elsewhere—but wait, that pupil needs more health attention than the others, if his mind is good. How shall you do your duty to society to make your graduate able to get a job? But are a job and a strong body everything? Is there no place for appreciation, perhaps even some amateur performance, in something aesthetic, such as fine arts, or music or both?

And plague-take-it-all, where does foreign language study come in? It enriches and extends English and it broadens and extends social studies, as a "continuing" subject; but it won't do much for science, in the time we can give it. In a way it is an "art" itself in an aesthetic sense, as language is an area of human activity, so it can compete with music and fine arts. Is it practical in an immediate way or only in a long-view sense? Can it, or should it, compete with that crying vocational need to get equipped for a job? Well, the studious-minded ones will elect it, and a few rightly have that "long-view" need, either as a contributory value or even, for some, to the practical point of using it for a job. To study something to teach it may be a vicious circle, but as the need persists in society, it remains a job. Well, how many get jobs teaching it? (and here, our imaginary principal—long suffering in this statistical world—consults another table, but this I spare my readers until another article).

Now, let's figure out together a fair compromise in this competition among nine areas for two school periods. (It is evident that I am overly simplifying the problem because many teachers of *social studies* want the materials to remain *subjects* and to have more than one period a day. The science program is a little more reasonable, as we shall see, and social studies programs are mollifying a bit as core-courses are attempted.) We can rule

out of the competition the private schools, where parents will continue to buy the instruction they want for their children and the schools to offer what they can sell. We can rule out the colleges also where half the student body may be expected to enroll in one or more foreign languages.¹¹ If we had an educational system for "the happy few," as that of France has been called by a serious-thinking Frenchman, we could be content with the foreign language enrollment that the private schools and the colleges would attract, a population ratio far beyond that of any other country, even England. But we are a democracy and we want democracy in education.

At the present moment we have about one-fourth of the pupils of American high schools in our classes, spread over all the grades of placement ("we" includes Latin). Is that a bad showing? The various foreign languages are in competition for these enrollments; and circumstances (budget, nature of the patronage, etc.) decide the number of languages that may safely compete without killing each other off. The language teachers themselves should work out some basis (a linguistic N.R.A.) for this competition. Like the small town which has three or four ill-paid ministers preaching in as many sparsely-attended expensively-maintained churches (and even so, many souls go unsaved), the small schools have two or three foreign language teachers working with too-small classes in too-short programs,—the ill-starred two-year course. If one minister could serve one united congregation, and be well-paid (and save perhaps as many souls as before), we might expect some rigorous competition to turn the poorer ministers into insurance agents or farmers. Could foreign language territory be allocated, competition adjusted, poor teachers crowded out and study time lengthened, so that the product we *do* turn out need not risk the criticism "slender and doubtful degree of mastery for most of the pupils"?¹² In 1939 less than half the new foreign language college graduates secured teaching jobs; if we had only half as many pupils (say, what we had in 1914) would the laws of competition, in spite of artificial forces of "pull" and of violations of certification laws, put expert teachers on the job who could deliver an "adequate product"? We shall examine this question in that other article.

But let's go back to you, the small town principal, leaving the city principal to worry about junior high school programs. The pamphlet, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, wants a type of "general education" in the ninth grade and suggests the general language course as one way to "serve directly the chief needs that are presented by advocates of foreign languages

¹¹ In 1924-25 in the U. S., 293 undergraduate institutions enrolled 148, 198 students, 57% of the student body. In New England and the South the percentage ran to 66%; in the Middle-Atlantic states it was 84%. In the private secondary schools the national average was 50%, but in the public schools only 25%. The Crofts 1940 poll of 101 colleges and universities finds a drop of 12% in French enrollments since 1937 and a rise of 34% in Spanish; in 333 institutions German had dropped only 3%. This readjustment between French and Spanish is not too unfair, for in 1925 the college French enrollment was at 29% against 17% for Spanish.

¹² *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, p. 29.

(clear idea of language structure, sympathetic understanding of strange cultures, etc.).” Will you play ball with that for the small schools? It does not prevent early foreign language study in cities and in private schools. You would like to make the “language arts survey” course compulsory, at least, but experience shows that you will get about half the pupils on an elective basis. Considered and presented as an “appreciation course of the language arts,” you are offering the minimum course on a non-performing basis.

Next, you consider what may be fair competition among the languages you can offer to begin in the 10th grade. By offering one language one year and another one the next—assuming that your school is not big enough to support two beginning languages each year—you could get two three-year programs on a two-year alternating sequence where there had been two starved and thwarted two-year programs yearly before. The two-year programs have to be definitely on an amateur basis of performance—probably reading and a fair ear-skill; in three years, a fair number of pupils can hope to reach the first stages of artist performance.

In the same issue of the *New York Times* (January 19, 1941) that carried Dean Doyle’s plea for a six-year program for foreign language study, there was an article by Benjamin Fine about how science is being integrated in experimental curricular arrangements. How does science fare in enrollments and teacher placement in school systems where the “general science” course is some twenty years old?

General Science is an integrated course concerned with physical and life sciences; Biology is actually a synthesis of life sciences. Biology was first surveyed by the Office of Education in 1915 when there were 80,403 high-school pupils taking the subject; in twenty years that enrollment had multiplied eight times, while the school population had increased nearly four times. General Science was first surveyed in 1922 at 393,885 pupils and the number had doubled by 1934, while the school population was also doubling. While biology was multiplying eight times the three principal natural sciences (botany, physiology and zoology) were dropping something less than half. But while general science was doubling in twelve years, physics and chemistry had nearly doubled also, which may be due to the growth of our scientific world or merely to the increase of school population. (It is now known that the crest of the increase has moved from the grades into the high school where 1939 was probably the peak; it is estimated that on a basis of pupil-teacher ratio of 1:30, the number of teachers of all kinds needed in Ohio declined about 3300 during the four years 1936–1940).¹³

General science is often alternated with biology at the ninth-grade level, if both cannot be offered yearly, and we see that this adjustment of science

¹³ Holy, T. C., “Trends in Public-School Enrollment in Ohio,” *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XX: 29–36 (February 12, 1941).

studies to the needs of general education has far from obliterated the component subject areas from the curriculum for pupils who go beyond into individual and more special careers. The same may be true for general mathematics (offered by 2136 schools in 1934 to 282,273 pupils) if this offering were analyzed, and perhaps also for core-courses in social studies if they continue to be developed and succeed in meeting school needs.

Will the advent of a general language course at the "general education" stage blot out actual foreign language study? In Detroit where the course, now city-wide, has been running since 1918, Lilly Lindquist does not think so.¹⁴ In the depression decade 1929-39 foreign language study in Detroit had fallen only 2 per cent and 600 pupils had been gained in the 1939 school-year; and these data do not include enrollment in general language and in the 'new-type course in foreign cultures.' It is too soon to give conclusive figures in Columbus, Ohio, where the course is now in its third year,¹⁵ but in the Ohio State University School, where experimentation with the course is five or six years old, "values have been realized which, in the opinion of the language-arts staff, warrant the inclusion in the curriculum of activities such as those described."¹⁶

An article in the December 15, 1940 *New York Sunday Times*, under the heading, *Basic Language Urged as Course* reported "a growing movement among foreign language teachers in New York City to endorse the introduction of a general language course in the high school." The article named Dr. Frank Mankiewicz of City College and Dr. Rollin T. Tanner of New York University, professors of modern and ancient languages respectively, as proponents of the proposal.

Gaumnitz, moved by the fact that four out of five small rural schools are still devoting much time to the ancient and foreign languages, complains

¹⁴ "General Language," *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIV: 563-567 (May 1940).

¹⁵ Irwin, Eliz. and Tharp, J. B., "Columbus Adopts the General Language Course," to be published in *Ohio Schools*.

In 1930-31 Columbus, Ohio, had 28% of all pupils of junior and senior high schools in foreign language study (there were 15.6% of the junior high pupils so enrolled, of which 11.4% were in Latin and 4.2% in modern languages); in 1936-37 this enrollment was 23.1% (11.3% in junior high, of which 9.6% was Latin). Next year foreign language study was changed from grades 7-8-9 to grade 9; that year there was 20.0% enrollment (8.2% junior high, of which 7.2% was Latin; and two trial classes in general language.) In 1938-39 the enrollment was 18.6% (7.6% junior high, of which 6.4% was Latin; plus 8% general language, now adopted). Next year the total enrollment rose to 21.3%; in the junior high there was 11.6% foreign language enrollment (of which 8.1% was Latin) plus 10.0% general language, a total of 21.6% of the junior high pupils taking foreign and general language.

¹⁶ Coutant, V., Johnson, I. and LaBrant, Lou, "General Language, A Study by Ninth-Grade Pupils," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XX: 6-21 (January 15, 1941). This issue is devoted entirely to the general language course; in the same issue the writer has an article entitled "The General Language Course and Its Administration." Copies may be obtained (at 10¢ mailing costs) from the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University.

that these schools "fail to prepare youth for better living."¹⁷ But foreign language study has long been misunderstood as a vocational or tool subject, rather than an art,—a "language art"—for it is just for the values stated later by Gaumnitz that foreign language teachers base their major claims. Gaumnitz rightly wants attention for rural youth in "such practical problems as farm tenacy, unemployment, farm mechanization, community sanitation, cooperative marketing, home beautification, farm and family budgeting, intelligent consumption." But he badly misjudges present day foreign language values when he excludes them in his query: "What are the rural high schools doing to train their students in a wiser use of leisure, to improve their reading habits and tastes, to bring about self-expression and self-realization through training in the creative arts? The schools must strive to fit youth to live as richly as possible in comparatively simple homes. If the farm youth [can do this], he will have a training which will serve him well, no matter where the chances of life may lead him."

Let me end this plea for conciliatory compromise with a recommendation that foreign language study resume standing as an art subject, a proposal uttered by a person of acknowledged authority to speak for our profession. "Aided therefore by circumstances and by public opinion, the teaching of all the modern foreign languages is turning its attention more directly to its civilizing, humanizing function. The languages are not primarily a utilitarian subject, and those who have tried to represent them chiefly as such have done them more harm than good. We do not believe that France is finished as a diplomatic or commercial power; yet we never taught French primarily to future diplomats or interpreters or foreign importers. We realize that many parts of our textbooks are out of date; that they cannot be rewritten and that no more will be received until the war is over; consequently that the factual, political, and immediate side of our teaching must be less stressed than ever. Yet we are finding a more complete justification in the unchanging and universal values of language study."¹⁸

¹⁷ Gaumnitz, *op. cit.*, p. 105.

¹⁸ Freeman, Stephen A., "Language and the War," *The Middlebury College News Letter*, XV: 12-13 (February 1941). Dr. Freeman is Acting-President of Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont, and Dean of the French Summer School at Middlebury; he is President of the American Association of Teachers of French.

Competent Advice in Language Elections

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(*Author's summary.*—Advice on taking a foreign language should be given by those individuals who know the *lasting* values of the several languages and fit these to the personal needs of the student.)

IN THE course of certain committee duties I have recently had occasion to look over a large amount of inspirational literature aimed at teachers and administrators, and claiming this or that virtue for one of the modern languages. Some of these claims belonged obviously to the lunatic fringe of our technical literature, but I believe that most of them were made in good faith. I even believe that a large proportion of them were justified, but it is clear that for a long time now too much advertisement has been made of the temporary advantage of the individual language, and too little of the long range values.

There used to be among educators a theory that in advising students to elect certain subjects a goal of some twenty years ahead should be kept in mind; that is, the student should study those subjects which might hopefully make life more generally satisfying twenty years later rather than merely for the next year or until marriage. How quaint this theory sounds now! When we cannot see clearly even a month ahead personally and nationally, to figure on satisfactions twenty years off seems quixotic, if not indeed irrational. Yet planning there has to be, no matter how often the plan is altered or scrapped.

This is elementary reasoning, though long range planning is hard to discover in this "inspirational" literature for teachers and administrators. The immediate consideration is commonly emphasized. Advice is often given on language matters by those who know only one language well, and who have no adequate basis for establishing comparative values. In actual practice advice is often given by educators who know no foreign language well. These people, however well intentioned, are carried hither and yon by the fleeting interests of the day, by new educational theories or even by the mere need for finding time in a student's program. As a result of such hit-or-miss advice student elections have shifted violently within a short period of time. Languages have certainly suffered no less than other subjects from these whimsical forces. Indeed, languages have suffered not only from attacks by hostile subjects, but also by the erratic advice of those who loved them most.

Chief among temporary considerations affecting student elections have been the shifting political set-up, international trade relations, group and international ideologies and innumerable pressure groups. In the past twenty years the political successes of foreign countries have been sedulously and blindly followed by American student programs. We all remember

how German suffered during and after the war of 1914-18. Germany is still suffering from school regulations made under the emotional stress of the last war. In addition it has to bear all the ill-will that most of us feel for Hitler personally. Yet German as a language has scarcely changed in actual value to the student. It is still needed for scientific work. It still carries some of the greatest literature and philosophy of all times. It still has notable value in music. No matter what we think of any German government, we have to admit the persistent values deep enough and vital enough to merit a strong place in any American curriculum.

Spanish has had quite as curious a history as German. Many years ago it was touted for its commercial value, long before the American government had made any serious effort to increase trade with South America, long before there was any Good Neighbor policy. On the contrary, we were wielding a very big stick, a times ruthlessly. Yet Spanish was widely advertised and widely elected. Then came the inevitable disillusion, for trade with South America did not develop as predicted. It was not yet ready. During this time little attention was paid to the literature, sociology or history of South America. These were considered a very feeble sales talk, though many professors travelled in South America for their own pleasure. Its widely diversified literature, national cultures and rich heritage made Spanish of notable value to the thinking student before, during and after the greatest apparent popularity of the language. In 1940-41 it is again swinging into favor, and this time on more solid foundations, I believe, than before. Yet real language values do not shift like this. Neither German nor Spanish deserved any such tugging up and down hill as they have had.

French has had a somewhat different record. High schools generally have offered some instruction in French, and college students have most often continued its study for a strictly limited time. This has been the course of least resistance, but it has in no way helped French to a more distinguished position in the curriculum. There has clung to French an aroma of the finishing school, of the good but superficial subjects. Many good students have managed to pass the required minimum courses without ever suspecting that in French they were studying the one European language which has had a notably excellent, and perhaps the most continuous literature since 1000 A.D.

Fortunately I have no desire to try to tell American teachers which are the lasting values for each language now taught in our schools. I am above all not making any attack, direct or indirect, on certain admirable techniques and means of teaching languages today which did not exist many years ago, e.g. the phonograph, the radio, Vander Beke lists; these have little to do with the problem of lasting values. Yet we all know that these values exist. We all know that they are slightly different for each language concerned. We know further that certain values are common to all the languages taught. I can only make the strong plea that those who advise stu-

dents on curricular matters keep in mind the special elements most likely to be of definitely lasting worth to the individual student. To do this the personal characteristics of the student, and the peculiar qualities of the language have to be studied together. In short, the teacher must determine for himself, from all the information and experience available, the potential contribution of each language, and this must be set up against the needs of the student. Only then can a satisfying answer be found.

Learning a new language is a personal experience, as any exploration into new psychologies, new philosophies and new literature has to be. It is the job of the competent language adviser to see that the student has the richest experience he can take.

A Friendly Spirit

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(*Author's summary.*—As a result of informal meetings a spirit of closer friendship exists between a varied group interested in French. Groups interested in other languages could profit by similar gatherings.)

AFTER reading Miss Peacock's article *The French Teacher is Lonely*,¹ I decided that someone should tell about the delightful informal French meetings that we have been having in our community for the past four years. Most of us had had no more than a speaking acquaintance with the other French teachers in our vicinity until the head of the Romanic Language Department of the neighboring university took the initiative and invited us all to gather quite informally at his home, one evening, for a few hours of French conversation. At that time a dream which many of us had had for some years actually materialized. As a result of these meetings there has been a friendly exchange of ideas, an appreciation of new personalities, and a closer acquaintance between a group interested in French.

Although we refer to ourselves as the Miami-Western French group we have no formal organization, no officers, no dues, no slogan. No formal scholarly or pedagogical papers have been presented, but variety has certainly not been lacking at our meetings. Since informal conversation in French is our primary aim, we talk about anything that may come into our minds: a recent movie or play, classroom problems, world affairs, vacation experiences, books read, a recent lecture or concert, even the weather or the household pet. One of our group was caught in France when the present war broke out, so she had much firsthand information to give us after her return. On one occasion a member of the group showed movies of a recent trip she and her friend had taken in Europe.

At times, in order to facilitate conversation or add to the gaiety of the evening, we play *jeux de société*. We even take short quizzes on geographical, historical, or cultural material prepared by some clever and energetic member of the group. One evening we had a kind of *Information Please* contest. Two leaders were appointed, then each leader chose other members to make up his group. Each member of the group submitted questions to be answered by the opposing side. We could not "ring up ten dollars on the cash register" or give a French encyclopedia or a box of "Sparkling Canada Dry" as prizes for the unanswered questions, but very generous helpings of the refreshments were assured. On another occasion we had a test which consisted in identifying the pictures of famous French people: authors, scientists, musicians, actors, etc.

¹ *Modern Language Journal*, xxiv; 5, pp. 330-331 (February, 1940).

Our histrionic ability has been tested from time to time when we have been given titles of novels, plays, poems, or short stories to act out. Sometimes it requires a great deal of imagination and much repetition of our clumsy gestures in order to have the group guess such titles as *La Rôtisserie de la Reine Pédauque*, *Le Roi s'amuse*, *La grenouille qui se veut faire aussi grosse que le boeuf*, or *Le Sous-préfet aux champs*. At times rôles are assigned and impromptu performances of very short plays are given, much to the amusement of the other members of the group.² Once we were each given one line from a fable of La Fontaine. It devolved upon the person who had the first line to begin the poem, then the others had to read their lines in the proper order until the fable was completed. A very comic effect resulted when some lines were given out of turn.

Music also has been used in our gatherings. We have sung French songs to piano and accordion accompaniments. Recently we listened to phonograph records of popular songs in France. We have also enjoyed some records of scenes from famous plays such as *L'Ecole des Femmes*, *Cyrano de Bergerac*, and *L'Aiglon* recited by actors and actresses of the Comédie Française.

Our group consists of Western College and Miami University professors, high school teachers, French *boursières*, housewives, and others we happen to know who are interested in speaking French occasionally. A young business man drives thirty or more miles each time in order to meet with us. One can readily see how varied the conversation of such a group might be. The number present at the meetings varies from twelve to fifteen.

We have made it a practice to meet once a month either at the home of a member of the group or in the parlors of one of the college or university dormitories. Refreshments climax the evening, but no one seems to be anxious to leave after three or more hours of delightful association. A friendly spirit pervades the "French" atmosphere in this community. Perhaps we have an ideal setup from which to draw, since Oxford is a small college town, but I feel confident that many other groups, interested in other languages as well as French, could profit by such informal gatherings, and the language teacher would not be lonely.

² Dluho and Harvitt, *Vingt Petites Pièces*, Harpers, is a good source for such plays.

Cooperation Between Geography and Modern Languages

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(*Author's summary.*—Such cooperation is possible by 1) poster work, 2) reference to foreign pictorial publications, 3) statistical books, 4) study of foreign word meanings, 5) incidental insertion of foreign terms, 6) extra-curricular departmental cooperation.)

ALTHOUGH the need of cooperation between departments is urgent, the procedures to carry them out presents so many difficulties that real integration is rare. The strong recent trend towards combining courses raises the question of integration of extremely diverse departments. The writer, a professor of geography, gives a few examples of attempts at coordination of his subject with the language department.

The means of cooperation may be put into six groups. The arrangement is neither exhaustive nor logical. The list is merely suggestive, only a sampling of possible methods, being explained.

The means of cooperation between geography and foreign language subjects are:

1. *Poster work or projects.*
2. *Reference to pictorial magazines, travel folios and similar materials.*
3. *Assignment to foreign statistical books, dictionaries, atlases and the like.*
4. *Word meanings and origins.*
5. *Incidental insertion of foreign terms in the recitation.*
6. *Extra curricular cooperation, foreign language plays, folk dances, costuming, lectures, etc.*

Basic to all coordination along the above lines is the understanding of the fact that while few pupils can grasp the grammar or comprehend long passages of foreign script, they can grasp vocabularies and even sentences if put in the proper context.

1. Thus it is possible to put into the posters or projects foreign words, slogans or even sentences, under appropriate drawings or symbols. In some cases it may be necessary to translate the terms on a poster. But both the person reading it and especially the person constructing it learn these new terms quite effectively. Of course, to cooperate properly with say Spanish, German or French, it is necessary that the words be in those and not other foreign languages. The variety of placards or other projects which benefit both the student geographer and the linguist are many.

2. There is a variety of highly illustrated foreign publications which can be used in geography. If they are in the proper tongue they automatically assist the language department. There are illustrated magazines in both

French and German in which pictures occupy a great deal of space at the expense of script, an ideal condition for those who wish to decipher the reading material.

3. Foreign publications like year books, dictionaries, almanacs, tables, atlases, etc. are considered "dry." Still such books are far easier to comprehend than ordinary script for several reasons. Numerals and other conventions are understood well. There are few involved sentences or grammatical difficulties. The few foreign words which occur are largely explained by the context. The dictionary may be used to get the meaning of the rest.

The following assignment was made in a school. A pupil was told to look up, and make a graph of the kilometers of inland waterways of various countries. Other students received different assignments from some foreign statistical source. An English-German dictionary was used to get the term for inland water shipping (*Binnenschiffart*). He had no difficulty then in getting the data from *Statistisches Jahrbuch fuer das deutsche Reich*. French statistics may be used similarly. Atlases may be used differently but they also teach geography and a foreign language at the same time.

4. Some word derivations in the English language can frequently be taken up in geography. There are in most sections of the United States, place names of foreign origin. They may be, and are frequently of French origin. There are many of Spanish origin. Their explanation affords a splendid opportunity for cooperation with these three language groups.

Origin of human beings' names is also of interest, especially if a large percent of people are of German or Yiddish origin as is often the case, and of French, as is occasionally the case. Many names have meaning, having been taken from some trade (Schmidt, LeClerc), some place (Schoenberg, Belmont), some characteristic (Weiss, Le Blanc) etc.

5. There is an opportunity for the geography teacher to explain certain words when one encounters them in a geography course. Graben, Presqueisle, Chien, Baden, are proper names which have meanings in foreign tongues. Also occasionally there are trade names which can be explained.

6. The expression extra curricular cooperation includes a diversity of items. Those discussed are merely illustrative. The foreign language and geography clubs may meet jointly for some topics interesting to both. Both might cooperate in putting on folk dances, costuming. Foreign language plays with proper illustrative setting are obviously of benefit to both geography and foreign language classes. Foreign language talking pictures could be sponsored by both groups when one group may not be capable of "putting it over." An assembly program on France, Germany, or Spain may be made so as to be instructive to both those interested in the country as well as those interested in their speech.

The above are merely examples of cooperation between two very diverse departments. The opportunities for cooperation is great even between departments which seem to have little relationship with one another.

A Check List for Standardized Objective Language Tests

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(*Author's summary.*—There are a number of tests on the market for language testing programs. Which are the best for departmental or course use? By making use of the following check list it should be easy to make an intelligent choice for each objective to be tested.)

TESTING programs generally presuppose the use of standardized tests for the purpose of comparability but anyone who has attempted to inaugurate a testing program, in almost any field, knows how difficult it is to select such tests. First of all, what tests are available? Secondly, how can one make a choice among them to best fulfill the objectives of the program? So far as the author knows, there is not a single independent agency or source of information available to answer such questions in a comprehensive manner. Some students have attempted to compile lists of available tests. Others have attempted both compilations and criticism. Yet there apparently is at present no up-to-date or complete annotated list of tests generally available, and what criticism has been attempted has been neither sufficiently comprehensive, nor complete, nor, in some cases, wholly competent.¹

There is little virtue in completeness *per se* when completeness means listing tests of an early experimental nature, some no longer available, or ones not available for national distribution. There does however seem to be a great need for an annual compilation of available tests and some criticism, at least of the new ones. Until such information appears, and perhaps even more after it appears, individual school departments will need some means of evaluating for their own use the tests available to them. The check list which follows has been devised with that in mind, but limited to the single field of Modern Languages.

Since conditions will vary so widely, no system of rating has been attempted. The factors of validity and reliability must always rank high, but cost, for example, may be a most important factor in one situation and of little moment in another where ease of administration or scoring are particularly desired. A satisfactory rating system may easily be devised by the individual department to best meet the conditions found there.

In general, this check list is self-explanatory. With nearly one hundred

¹ The two most comprehensive sources of information have been Gertrude H. Hildreth, *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*, The Psychological Corporation, 1939; and Oscar K. Buros, Editor, *The 1938 Mental Measurements Yearbook*, New Brunswick, Rutgers University Press, 1938. The former is a compilation with occasional listing of references; the latter is quite incomplete in some fields and the criticism has not always been entrusted to experts in testing.

and fifty items, it has been made as complete as possible to meet the various situations that will arise. Nearly half of the items may be answered by a check mark. Information on all the items can be supplied by reference to sample tests or to manuals furnished by the test publisher. In a few cases, special inquiry may be necessary. Any suggestions for improving this list will be very much appreciated by the author.

The items under IDENTIFICATION are purely factual and call for no personal judgment. Under TYPE, the information required is also chiefly factual. A *recall* type test is one in which the student must think up and write out an answer. In the *recognition* type it is only necessary to indicate by some mark which one, of several choices, is believed to be correct, or, as in the case of unmodified true-false items, to recognize whether a statement is true or false. Although terminology is as yet un-standardized, it should not be difficult to indicate briefly the type or *types of items* involved such as "matching," "completion," "multiple-choice," etc. And since some tests combine several types of items, it may be useful to know at least the rough proportion of each. A *power* test is one in which the items are arranged in order of difficulty. Very few of these exist in a pure form. Where such arrangement is attempted, it is usually in combination with *rate* which means that strict time limits are to be observed. *Machine scoring* is a comparatively recent development and can only be used in the recognition type test. A separate answer sheet and a special type pencil are required to indicate choices by marks in designated spaces. Any recognition type test may be adapted for machine scoring and any machine-scorable test may, of course, be scored manually as well. Under CHIEF PURPOSE AND POSSIBLE USES, it will be seen that very few tests are limited to a single use although most are naturally much more useful for some purposes than for others.

Most of the information concerning VALIDITY must be obtained from the test publishers, either directly or from manuals. Validity refers to the degree to which a test actually does measure what it purports to measure and is a factor of extreme importance. That is why the reputation of the test maker and publisher is so important since it is almost impossible to verify their statements. The same considerations apply to the RELIABILITY of a test—the consistency with which it measures whatever it does measure, time after time, form after form, regardless of who does the scoring. However, the information on which reliability is based admits of verification, but the cost in time and money would be so great in most cases that for all practical purposes, we must rely again on the reputation of the maker.

The items under AVAILABILITY are self-explanatory. The factors involved may be of considerable importance in many cases. Concerning ADMINISTRATION, there is leeway for subjective evaluation in many of the items but the evaluation can become more and more objective as the number of different tests under consideration increases. For most language tests, it will be found that no *special qualities* are required in the administrator

other than those possessed by the average intelligent teacher or assistant. And when considering the *total time required for administration* of a test, it must be remembered that some tests which require a longer time than that provided by the usual class period may be divided and administered over more than one session. As for student and teacher *reaction to tests*, this is the only item which presupposes prior administration of a test and care must be taken to distinguish reactions to the test itself from those due to the pure novelty of what may be a new type of test.

Ease of SCORING has come to be looked upon as one of the chief advantages of an objective test. In the recognition type test, no *special qualities* are required of the scorer other than dependable clerical ability, and directions can be very simple. In some recall type tests, the matter is more complicated. The quality of *directions* is more important and demands on the scorer are somewhat more extensive. The principal operations are listed under *procedure*. Where more than one test form exists, *scaled scores* should be furnished for translation of *raw scores*. The raw score consists primarily of the number of test items correctly answered although such results are frequently weighted. In the case of true-false and multiple-choice type tests, the most common type of weighting is to *penalize for incorrect answers* in order to obviate the effects of guessing. The INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS is extremely important for comparability and no test deserves the terms "standardized" which is not accompanied by comprehensive reference material of the types listed.

No single check list can be wholly satisfactory for every test. This one can be made more useful if pains will be taken to list the PARTICULAR ADVANTAGES of each test. This can be done from information furnished by the test publisher plus a careful study of the test itself, even without prior trial. Is machine scoring a particular advantage to you, for example? If cost is important, and separate answer sheets are available, it may be advantageous to use a question sheet over and over again, only renewing the cheaper answer sheets, even when the tests are scored manually. Again, a factor like wide-spread use may be of great importance both in indicating reputation, and in furnishing voluminous data for estimation of reliability, determination of norms, and other statistical uses. On the other hand, wide-spread use may conceivably be a disadvantage by introducing a practice effect, especially where tests are improperly used. (Of course, limited use will not be given undue weight where a test is new but ranks high in important respects.) In short, this final section should be used as a summary on which to base the choice of test for your particular situation.

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS

I. IDENTIFICATION

Name of Test	Date	Name and Address of Publisher

Author		Editor or Supervisor	
Name	Position	Name	Position

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (*Continued*)I. IDENTIFICATION (*Continued*)

Extent of Use Last Year										
Number of Tests Used									Used Chiefly in What Part of the Country	Total
Secondary Schools		Junior Colleges		Teachers Colleges		Colleges and Universities		Others		
Public	Pri- vate	Public	Pri- vate	Division of a Uni- versity	Sepa- rate	State	Pri- vate			

Cost					
Question Sheets	Answer Sheets	Keys	Instructions	Manuals	Other Material

[illegible][illegible]

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (*Continued*)III. CHIEF PURPOSE AND POSSIBLE USES (*Continued*)

Diagnostic and Remedial					Prognostication			Grading	Other Uses
Student groups	Individual Students	Student Self-Instruction	Methods and Emphases of Instruction	Curricular Organization	Selection and Rejection of Students for Language Training	Course Placement	Student Grouping Within Courses According to Ability	Promotion or Retardation	

IV. VALIDITY

Criteria			Basis of Sampling			Experimental Try-Outs		Other Proofs
External		Internal	Curricula	Textbooks	Other	Number of Groups	Total Number of Cases	
Other Tests	Judgment of Experts	Check of Item Scores against Total Scores	Number of Cases	Number of Cases				

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (Continued)

V. RELIABILITY

Correlation								How Often Is Data Re-checked	Methods of Insurance Against Coaching	Other Proofs
Retests		Compar- able Forms		Split- half Method		Other				
Coefficient	No. of Cases	Coefficient	No. of Cases	Coefficient	No. of Cases	Coefficient	No. of Cases			

VI. AVAILABILITY

Number of Com- parable Forms Now Available	Date of Publication of New Forms	Approximate Time Required to Execute Orders	Other Factors Af- fecting Availability

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (*Continued*)VII. ADMINISTRATION (*Continued*)

Arrangement of Test (<i>Continued</i>)								
Sample Items Pro- vided?	Con- venient to Use?	Free from Distrac- tions?	Physical Make-Up					
			Satisfactory				Num- ber of Pages	Other Qualities
			Paper	Typog- raphy	For- mat	Binding		

Reaction to Tests				Other Considerations of Test Administration
Instructors		Students		
Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (*Continued*)

VIII. SCORING

Special Qualities Required for Scorer	Directions Supplied			Procedure Required		
	Compre- hensive?	Clear?	Effec- tive?	Raw Scores	Penalty for Errors	Scaled Scores

Approximate Scoring Time Per Test			Cost of Machine Scoring by Available Outside Agencies	Other Pertinent Factors
Question Sheet	Answer Sheet			
Manual	Manual	Machine		

A CHECK LIST FOR STANDARDIZED OBJECTIVE LANGUAGE TESTS (*Continued*)

IX. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Reference Material									
Norms Arranged by			Is Unit of Study De- fined?	Measurements of Central Tendency		Measurements of Deviation and Distribution			
Course Groups	Age Groups	Type of School		Medians	Means	Per- centiles	Stand- ard De- viations	Prob- able Error	Others

Reference Material (<i>Continued</i>)						
Arrangement and Presentation		Instructions for Use and Application			Record Sheets Provided for Class Use?	Other Considerations Con- cerning Reference Material
Satis- factory?	Unsatis- factory?	Compre- hensive?	Clear?	Easy to Use?		

X. PARTICULAR ADVANTAGES

(Items not included in check-list or which need emphasizing)

English Spelling

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(*Author's summary.*—Practical suggestions for a systematic reform of English spelling, with an earnest request for criticisms by readers.)

WHAT a big fuss we do make from time to time and how little we get done! What a host of scholars, including an exuberant and scholarly President, have fumed about English spelling and have so far succeeded, thanks to the now defunct Literary Digest, only in authorizing the letter *z* instead of *s* in such words as *civilize*, surely a *mus* if not *ridiculus*.

And who should be concerned about it if not teachers and students of languages, and such periodicals as the *Modern Language Journal*?—especially the *Modern Language Journal*, as I suspect there is no other language journal so widely diffused among teachers of languages.

These teachers are just the right ones for making another attack upon the pathetic unreasonableness, the archaic anarchy, the Gothic gargoyles of our present set-up, because they better than others, if students of English, are more or less familiar with the caprices that have created our English orthography. If it be of French, they have seen the difficulties created for pupils by the medieval hang-over of the current spelling. If German, Spanish or Italian, they have seen the gratifying effects that can be produced by an intelligent body of scholars backed by governmental support.

All right, granted that a Democracy will not stand for dictation, is it then impossible to modernize anything in a country like ours without prospect of an immediate financial reward or a military advantage?

Well, where a previous adventurous Roosevelt failed out, perhaps a teachers' organization will succeed,—and I mean *succeed*, not merely *nasce-tur alius mus*.

First, does the wishful thinking still survive among both scholars and students that an honest-to-goodness change is possible? I shall have to assume this or admit that we are licked at the start. To begin again a discussion of what has been "cussed" and discussed for centuries would get us nowhere.

Next, we need an alphabet or a new pattern of some sort. Shall it be a phonetic alphabet with new letters? My answer is *No*; this would require a completely new outfit for the printers and postpone change indefinitely. Just think what it would do to the fonts of type and to the linotype equipment. Not if it can be done otherwise.

It has been accomplished in German, Spanish, and Italian without any new letters, merely a few additional signs. Umlauts, accents, tilde, and the cedilla help out in these languages. Sure enough, the English language is

a much tougher proposition than any of these, but let's make a scouting expedition.

I have no desire to prejudice the case by trying to dictate a selection either of previous plans or of a scheme of my own, but I should like to present something definite for consideration. To get something we can put our teeth into, let us accept the classification of sounds offered by the latest International Webster and see what our current alphabet has to offer.

The great difficulty has always come in the complexity of our English system. For instance, a long vowel is sometimes shown by a final silent *e* and sometimes not, as in *pole* and *old*; the short vowel is sometimes shown by doubling the following consonant, and sometimes not, as in *pallor* and *valid*.

Congresses have been held in various parts of the English world and elsewhere to consider such matters, but to little avail. The Gordian knot can never be untied by general, unfocussed discussion. There is no end ever in sight; it has to be cut.

So I shall lop off the silent *e* and all other silent letters; I shall double no consonants, and in order to avoid as far as possible the use of subsidiary signs, I shall supplement the simple letters with digraphs when profitable. We are accustomed to these in English. For example, for the long vowels an *e* is added to the simple letter, thus *ae*, *ee*, *ie*, *oe*, *ue*, and for the corresponding short vowel the simple letter, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, is used. We won't touch any more than we can help the unstressed vowels, since these are unstable in pronunciation, varying with context, and often changing to the stressed form in derivatives, e.g. *final* and *finality*.

We shall not insist on one letter for one sound, which has repeatedly proven a stumbling block. The Germans, French, Spanish and Italians, like us, have two sounds for *c* and the last three peoples, again with us, have two sounds for *g*, while the Spanish interchange the *b* and *v*, depending in each of these cases upon position or contacts, and this without ambiguity. We might continue as far as possible our practice for *c* and *g* and thus preserve something of the ancient flavor of the language.

Nor shall we insist on absolute perfection. For example there are two sounds of long *e* in German. One must rely on the dictionary or his experience or his personal choice for his personal practice. The vowels *e* and *o* have each two sounds in Italian, as have also the consonants *s* and *z*. These differences are relegated to the dictionary and the same is true of some of the vowels in Spanish. When neither single letters nor digraphs meet fully our needs, I shall be content with similar methods. The forms and options offered after the colons are intended to be suggestions only, and here goes.

VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

1. Short vowels in *cat*, *met*, *hit* (*myth*), *stop*, *rug*: *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*.
2. Long vowels in *pale*, *fee*, *tie* (*sky*), *foe*, *due*: (1) *ae*, *ee*, *ie*, *oe*, *ue*. (2) *ā*, *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, *ū*. (3) No. 2 before a vowel only, no. 1 elsewhere.

3. Unstressed vowels as in *abound, novel, basin* (*zephyr*), *doctor, circus*: a, e, i, o, u, when not of some other specific type.
4. Silent vowels as in *tone, same, service*: Omitted.
5. *a* in *father, palm, arm*: (1) ä. (2) a. (3) aa. (4) ah.
6. *au* in *haul, al* in *talk, a* in *was*: (1) au. (2) aw.
7. *oi* in *boil, oy* in *boy*: (1) oi. (2) oy.
8. *oo* in *mood, o* in *do, prove*: oo.
9. *ou* in *pout, ow* in *cow*: (1) ou (2) ow.
10. *u* in *push, oo* in *book, o* in *wolf*: (1) ü. (2) u.
11. *ur* in *turn, e* in *her, i* in *sir*: (1) ur. (2) er. (3) ir.

There are some parlous points involved in these suggestions, as in any plan. In several cases there would be no attempt to distinguish more closely than we do already, e.g. *ai* in *pair* and *paid*, *ee* in *peer* and *deed*, *o* in *mote* and *more*, stressed *a* in *hat* and unstressed in *abound*, stressed *e* in *end* and unstressed in *clever* and *seven*.

As we suggest leaving the short vowels unchanged in unstressed syllables, we should do the same for all monosyllabic words when unstressed, unless the pronunciation clearly accords with some other vowel, e.g. no vowel change: a, am, and, as, at, can, for, from, had, has, have, her, him, is, must, not, or, than, the, them, us, were, will. But we need to change the vowel in: do, he, me, she, some, to, was, we, you, your, and an accented *a* and *the* would need the long vowel.

We do not distinguish initial and non-initial *ue*, e.g. in *uenit* (unit) and *dueti* (duty). No more does Webster in most of these cases. For all of them we pray and expect forgiveness.

But there are some other things that really bother us.

1. What shall we do about *hat, bath, and barn*? Webster uses the dieresis to mark the Italian *a*. Will you write: ärm, bä, lä, fäther, also äsk, bäh, pärm *palm*, änt *aunt*, if that's the way you say them? Or leave them plain *a*?

2. And shall we squeeze *tub* and *push* together? Or could we call again upon the dieresis for assistance, e.g. *tub* and *püsh*, or employ some other expedient?

3. I offer with some reluctance another suggestion: that in order to avoid a cumbersome complex we drop the *e* from the *e* digraphs when another vowel follows. Then what shall we do next? Perhaps nothing, but that might cause some confusion, e.g. for *soer*=*sore* and *sower*. Would the sign do which the dictionaries use to indicate the long vowel, e.g. in *praer* and *präer*, *soer* and *söer*, *laer*=*lair* and *läer*=*layer*, *cheer* and *frëer*, etc.?

The French have their characteristic cedilla and accents, the Germans their Umlaute and the Spanish and Portuguese their tilde. We *could* have something distinctive too.

CONSONANTS

12. As in English: b, ch, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, sh, t, v, w, wh, y, z.

13. Silent consonants as in *thumb, muscle, yacht, Wednesday, gnaw, hound, knee, hymn, psalm, often, wrong*: Omitted.
14. *c* in *cat*, *k* in *king*: (1) *k*. (2) *k* before *e* or *i*, *c* elsewhere.
15. *c* in *cent*, *s* in *hiss*: (1) *s*. (2) *c* before *e* or *i*, *s* elsewhere.
16. *g* in *go, get*: (1) *g*. (2) *gh* before *e* or *i*, *g* elsewhere.
17. *g* in *gem*, *j* in *jar*: (1) *j*. (2) *g* before *e* or *i*, *j* elsewhere.
18. *ng* in *singer*: *ng*.
19. *ng* in *finger*: (1) *nġ* (2) *ng*.
20. *qu* in *quick*: (1) *qu*. (2). *cw*. (3) *kw*.
21. *s* in *sit*, *sc* in *scene*: *s*.
22. *s* in *rose*, *z* in *zeal*: *z*.
23. *s* in *pleasure*, *z* in *azure*: 1. *zh*. 2. *z*.
24. *th* in *breath*: *th*.
25. *th* in *breathe*: *dh*.
26. *x* in *extra*: (1) *x*. (2) *ks*.
27. *x* in *exist*: (1) *x*. (2) *gz*.

Again we consider cases. Should we retain the *c*, *g* and *x*, as they do in French, German, Spanish and Italian (the *x* to a limited extent in all except French)?

If so, we should give *c* the *s* sound before *e*, *i*, or *y* and the *k* sound elsewhere, as at present, e.g. in *cent, cyst, city, cite, ceiling; cat, coil, cut*.

Shall we use *qu* wherever it is now found with the *kw* sound, e.g. in: *queen, quick, quarrel, question*?

Finally shall we use *x* where it is now used, e.g. in *extra, expedition, exist examine*? Or should we distinguish between the two sounds *ks* and *gz*?

There are several concordances here too that some may prefer to avoid, viz. in case of *ng, th* and *z*. We don't do so usually now. However I have offered some devices that have been proposed by other "reformers": a dieresis over the *g* when sounded, *dh* for the voiced sound of *th* and *zh* for the *z* in *azure*, e.g. *finger, bodher=bother, azhur=azure*.

A word in review. We have introduced no new symbols. The only phonemes that may be distinguished by special signs are *ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, ä, ů*, and *ğ*, and some of these occur rarely. They could be read: long *a*, long *e*, etc., dotted *a*, etc.

So any of the supplementary suggestions could be adopted without causing an upheaval in the printing office, since the printer is already acquainted with the sign of length and the dieresis, and great would be the rejoicing among the publishers of elementary textbooks.

But from the technical viewpoint the outstanding feature of this plan is to my mind the fact that it does not insist on perfection, on distinctions it would be difficult to make and which the language has never attempted to make. These are the reef on which previous plans have been wrecked.

By this time it will have become evident to every one of my readers that

he could invent a better spelling than this one. But that isn't the point. Could the readers agree on it? If so, I'm with them for better or worse. If there be whole peoples who like to be kicked into action, who love coercion, who go crazy about it, then surely I am willing to accept provisionally the opinion of the majority of my peers. I offer this plan as something to bite into. And I hope that every subscriber, in fact every reader will respond.

You may well ask how this apparently Quixotic attempt gets anywhere. Well, I suppose it doesn't, not right now,—but it may. We are composed of how many states, forty-eight? Surely there are some up-and-coming modern language teachers in one or more of them. If we can once get an expression of opinion, shall we not be willing to show the world that our branch of learning has a very practical side? Even bad publicity may be better than none. Better the dog house than Nirvana. And why stew about War *all* the time!

The initiative might be taken by some state association, modern language or English. A state committee might be appointed, and some standard, perhaps a specific dictionary, adopted for the pronunciation.

Bedevel the legislature. Get some solon to formulate a bill and some soft-hearted legislator to offer it this year, next year and sempiternally, with modulated frills, until the people at the Capitol see they have some Pankhursts on their hands.

Far be it from me to say what the bill should contain, I wouldn't know. But the school-book approach seems a good one. How about some intellectual eastern State, Massachusetts for example, or some progressive western State, California for example, requiring that after a certain date the elementary text books should be printed on one page as now is, and facing this on the opposite page the new way, and have the pupils drilled on both. Professor Paul Passy has tried this in France and finds that the children actually learn more rapidly than by the orthographic method alone. Young children are so docile,—in a very restricted sense of this word,—that they would catch on in no time and in ten or fifteen years the whole lump would be leavened from kindergarten to university.

Maybe this is the way to win. Begin at the bottom.

If you are willing to coöperate in the formation of a new orthography, send me your judgment for each of the 27 items enumerated above.

The Problem of Vocabulary Levels in Teaching French

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(Author's summary.—Teachers of French insist upon too rigorous a standard in the quality of French. They reject as "bad French" good colloquial terms used by cultivated people. Professor Fries has shown that no odium attaches to the word "colloquial." The French scholars, Dauzat and Damourette and Pichon, have proved that there is small difference between literary French and good colloquial French. Students must understand various levels of vocabulary if they are to read intelligently. Care should be taken in textbooks to indicate the levels of vocabulary by signs. Suitable translation requires an adequate knowledge of both English and French. The life of American slang is much shorter than that of French slang.)

WE HAVE observed for some time the progress made by teachers of English who have felt that a more realistic attitude should be taken towards the question of usage. Although for some years certain rules of usage were maintained in the English handbooks which were not in conformity with the current practice of speakers and writer, a change has gradually been taking place. The conservative ideas of teachers in regard to the purity of a language are doubtless useful in checking careless and slovenly habits of writing and speaking, but they should not be interpreted so rigorously that they oppose a barrier to the free development of a medium of communication which requires flexibility and adaptability to the needs of the people above all else. Professor Charles C. Fries of the University of Michigan says: "Many assume that the language practices of formal writing are the best or at least that they are of a higher level than those of colloquial or conversational English. When, therefore, they find an expression marked 'colloquial' in a dictionary, as is the phrase 'to get on one's nerves' in Webster's *New International Dictionary*, they frown upon its use. As a matter of fact thus to label an expression 'colloquial' is simply to say that it occurs in good conversation but not in formal writing. Unless one can say that formal writing is in itself more desirable than good conversation, the language practices peculiar to conversation cannot be rated in comparison with those of formal writing."¹ Professor Fries is in favor of a scientific attitude towards language instead of a conventional attitude.

The purpose of this article is to suggest that a similar attitude might well be adopted in the teaching of the modern languages. Professor Albert Dauzat of the Sorbonne, has been a pioneer in the movement in France to record and to accept the fact of linguistic change. But many teachers of French in the United States are still uncompromising purists in their single-minded adherence to a strict literary standard. Although they may not

¹ Charles Carpenter Fries, *The Inflections and Syntax of Present-day American English*, p. 6. Edwards Bros., Ann Arbor, Mich., 1938.

limit their vocabulary to the language of Bossuet, they are inclined to limit themselves and their pupils too narrowly to the best written usage of the early nineteenth century and to frown upon all colloquial expressions (not to speak of slang) as unworthy of cultivated French usage. This attitude seems to preserve a provincial point of view which is still abundantly represented in the provinces of France, but which finds little acceptance among cultivated people in Paris.

To avoid misunderstanding, let us distinguish clearly between the usage which is appropriate for formal essays and examinations in French schools and the standards of written French which obtain in books, newspapers, and articles which do not deal with purely academic subjects. It is quite obvious that French professors demand a certain standard of classical French from their students which is considerably above the standard of English accepted by professors of English in American colleges. This creates a wider gap between colloquial French and the scholastic standard. However, even the professors occasionally permit themselves certain popular and colloquial expressions in their books which they would be careful to avoid in their formal lectures. Let us take an example from a scholar who was writing in the second half of the nineteenth century, Charles Lenient. "Scudery lui-même s'enfarine d'Aristote pour attaquer le *Cid* de Corneille."² This verb, "s'enfariner" in the sense, "have a smattering of" is listed as a familiar expression in Littré, and more recently, in the Mansion-Heath dictionary. The best modern novelists often fall into serious errors if one were to judge them by classical standards. Damourette and Pichon, in the first volume of their monumental work on French grammar inform us that Marcel Proust and Henri Barbusse confused imperfect subjunctives with past definites.³ Bauche in his *Le Langage Populaire* (Paris, 1928) pointed out: "Aujourd'hui il n'y a pas telle différence entre le français populaire et le français littéraire." He also says, "Ainsi plusieurs termes populaires conviennent si bien à l'expression de certaines idées que les Français cultivés les emploient à tout instant." Yves Gandon in the *Démon du Style* reproaches Abel Hermant who prides himself on the purity of his style with using *vis-à-vis* for *à l'égard de*. Albert Dauzat in his *Histoire de la langue française* (1930) p. 569 recognizes the constant shifting of words from one social level to another. "Dans les milieux cultivés, on observe encore plus de nuances, tout un ensemble de gradations: langage familier, parfois teinté d'argot, avec les mots qui viennent à l'esprit, des négligences de prononciation (moins de liaisons, plus de contractions, effritement des finales combinées) et de syntaxe, des constructions brisées, une phrase plus décousue, plus affective; conversation de salon, termes plus choisis sinon plus recherchés, prononciation et syntaxe plus soignées, construction moins bâclée."

² *La Comédie en France au XVIII^e siècle*, vol. II, p. 81.

³ Damourette et Pichon, *Des Mots à la Pensée, Essai de grammaire de la langue française*.

We have no intention of trying to spoil the classic outlines of the French language by introducing to our students a great number of colloquial expressions. But they should be made aware of the different levels of language which actually exist so that when they go to France they will not be confronted with a host of unfamiliar expressions from which they were carefully guarded by their teachers. The comprehension and enjoyment of modern novels and plays would be greatly aided by an exact knowledge of the social connotations, the humorous implications, and the vigor of certain locutions which are either neglected or poorly translated in the majority of our textbook glossaries. A convenient system of signs could indicate the general level and extreme care should be taken to match the level in French with the level in English. Textbooks seem to err in two directions: either the translation of the idiom is too flowery or too much reliance is placed upon a dictionary definition. Let us take an example from a recent textbook where the expression "Tant pis" is translated in a note as "He should worry." In this particular context the dictionary meaning "It might be worse" is much better. In the first place, this expression has been a natural part of the French language for centuries whereas the slang expression "I should worry" which was quite popular about 1912 is now practically obsolete or at least obsolescent. This brings up the question of the relative life of slang in the United States and in France. Those who have lived almost two generations at least are well aware of the ephemeral nature of American slang which is largely renewed at least every ten years. The younger generation would find the expression "Twenty-three, skidoo" both quaint and ridiculous. French slang, on the contrary, seems much more tenacious. The slang verb "rigoler" which is still used, dates from the thirteenth century according to Dauzat and is found in Rabelais although the derivative adjective, "rigolo" appeared in the early nineteenth century. Of course, thieves' slang or jargon changes very rapidly as a glance at Sainéan's book, *Les Sources de l'argot ancien* would soon convince us. But if we look at the slang and familiar expressions in the letters of Flaubert, we see that a large number have survived. In the editing of modern texts of plays Frenchmen and Americans who have adequate training in the resources of English should collaborate in the definition of colloquial expressions. In many cases, the social milieu of some locutions could be briefly sketched so that a student who had once acquired the expression might feel reasonably safe in employing it in conversation without risk of shocking his hearers or exhibiting his ignorance of the precise nuance which French people might attach to it. We have known several Americans in France who have committed in all innocence some serious "gaffes" through their ignorance of the social antecedents of the words they are using.

Jules Romains in his serial novel, *Les Hommes de bonne volonté* illustrates the immense vocabulary range to be found in different classes of society. When he expresses his own ideas about his characters from the point of view

of the author, he sometimes makes no distinction between the literary level and the colloquial level. In volume 18, *La douceur de la vie*, p. 148, he uses the expression "traîner la patte" and on page 149 the literary equivalent, "tirer la jambe." A recent text, *Napoléonette*, by Sonet and Meylan distinguishes three levels by marking certain terms as "popular" or "familiar." A well-known French handbook published in 1926, *Le français de tous les jours* indicates by a system of signs three levels below the literary level, familiar, vulgar, and slang. In regard to certain novels where differences of vocabulary become apparent between Parisians and provincial characters, it might be advisable to extend the system. Damourette and Pichon discuss the various words used by people from different parts of France to express the idea, "remettre un objet à sa place": *ranger, serrer, ramasser, placer, retirer, réduire, plier*. It seems to us that certain teachers of French are too inclined to over-simplify things by dividing all words and expressions into "good" and "bad" French, and to assume that further distinctions are unnecessary.

*Predicting Success in an Intermediate Junior College Reading Course in Spanish**

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(*Author's summary.*—A prognosis test which shows a satisfactory correlation with achievement, and which, together with other records and tests, should furnish an objective and reliable basis for a wise counselling program in this type of junior college course.)

THE investigation here reported was made in the course entitled "Spanish D" in the San Francisco Junior College, a fourth semester reading course, in which there is no attempt to teach formal grammar or composition. The course has the following prerequisite: Completion of Spanish C in the college, with a passing grade, or three years of Spanish in high school, with an average grade of at least "C."

A study of students' grades in Spanish D over a period of several semesters suggested the advisability of devising some intelligent program of counselling which might reduce the large number of failures.¹ It appeared that some students, especially those entering the course direct from high school with an interval of one semester or more since their last contact with the language, should be advised to enroll in Spanish C, without college credit if necessary, and thus make up their deficiency before attempting Spanish D. Others might be persuaded to drop the study of Spanish entirely and devote their attention to some other, more profitable, subject. Certain students, with one particular weakness, such as an imperfect knowledge of verb forms, could be shown that their immediate need was extra concentration on this one point.

In the hope of obtaining some objective basis upon which to build such a program of counselling, the writer devised a test which could be administered during one class period at the beginning of the semester. The test is composed of the following parts:

Part I. Vocabulary, 50 items, multiple-choice, based largely on the Buchanan and Keniston word lists.

Part II. Idioms, 25 items, chosen largely from Keniston; short Spanish sentences, containing the idioms, with multiple-choice translations.

Part III. Verbs, 25 items. Spanish sentences employing different tenses of irregular verbs, in which only the underlined verb is to be translated to English.

* The writer takes pleasure in acknowledging his indebtedness to Mr. Harold W. Leuenberger, Instructor in Psychology and Director of Research in the San Francisco Junior College, without whose suggestions and advice this study would have been impossible.

¹ Of 191 students enrolled in Spanish D, 55 obtained grades of "D," 8 grades of "F," and 34 grades of "W" (Withdrawal), a total of 97 unsatisfactory grades, approximately 51% of the original enrollment. Although this may not be an unusually high percentage for academic courses in junior college, it is obviously too high for a fourth semester course, whose students have already completed, with at least a passing grade, three semesters of college work or three years of high school work in the same subject.

The test was made up in two different forms, each of which shows a satisfactory coefficient of reliability.²

At the beginning of two different semesters this test was given to a total of 57 students, and shows the following coefficients of correlation with students' grades at the end of the semester:³

Part I (Vocabulary)	.57
Part II (Idioms)	.34
Part III (Verbs)	.55
Total Test	.69 ⁴

Although these figures denote a substantial correlation between students' scores in this achievement test and grades in Spanish D, it is certainly not high enough to enable us to predict with certainty any individual grade. Indeed the test was not designed for this purpose, but with the hope of finding some minimum score, below which failure would be quite probable, if not almost inevitable.

With this idea in mind, the writer has studied carefully the records of those students who made low scores on the test at the beginning of the semester. This examination reveals that of the 28 students with a score below the median, only approximately 10% obtained a satisfactory grade ("C") in Spanish D. Eleven students withdrew before the end of the semester, 2 failed, and 12 obtained grades of "D." Of the three who obtained satisfactory grades, one had made a grade of "C," another a grade of "B," in the preceding college course; and the third had obtained a grade of "B" in his preceding course in high school.

Of the 28 students whose score was greater than the median, all but 7 made satisfactory grades ("A," "B" or "C"). Of these 7 students, 3 withdrew (none because he was failing in Spanish D), none failed and 4 received grades of "D." The test has quite obviously proved its worth as one basis of predicting success or failure in this particular course.

The items selected for examination in this test (vocabulary, idioms and verbs) were those which appear to function best in a distinctive and measurable way in the type of course under consideration. The writer realizes that there are other, perhaps more important, factors, such as individual temperamental traits and the amount of effort which any student can or will expend on a particular course. The writer is aware that some of these factors had an important effect upon the results of this study. But such factors are

² .89 for Form A, .87 for Form B (Self-correlation of odd and even items of same test, using Spearman's formula).

³ Correlations have been computed only for the 43 students who completed the course. Although many of the withdrawals represent potential failures, these cases have been disregarded because there was no objective way of assigning them any definite grades.

⁴ The total scores in the test show a higher correlation with grades in Spanish D than do the same students' grades in their last course in Spanish (.69 as compared with .52).

almost always certain to be present, in a greater or less proportion, in future classes; and merely because there are no objective measurements for such intangibles is no reason for abandoning all attempts to predict success or failure in academic work. We should rather attempt to analyze the more striking variations in the hope that in the future we may be on the alert for similar cases.

With this idea in mind, a study was made of six individual cases, in the hope of being able to explain, at least partially, the variations. The results of this study are given below:

Student A, a fourth semester student with a high grade point average and no grade lower than a "B-plus" in four other Spanish courses, made the highest score on the prognosis test, but obtained only a low "B" in the course, below the grade of six other students. During this semester this student underwent a rather serious emotional crisis, which had an evident effect upon her grades in several courses.

Student B ranked fourteenth in the prognosis test but made a grade of "A" in the course. Although this student ranked well above the median for all junior college students in the general psychological test, he was not in the brackets which would justify a prophecy that he would be an "A" student. But he appears to be an individual who is almost perfectly adjusted psychologically and socially to his environment. He has a definite goal toward which he is aiming, an apparent understanding of the requirements to be met and an admirable determination to profit to the utmost from every educational opportunity which is offered to him.

Student C. From this student's score in the test, one would have predicted that he would obtain a grade of at least "C." In his last semester of high school Spanish he had obtained a grade of "A." However, he had been out of school for two years and was attempting to work several hours every night while carrying a full college course of 16 units. He refused obstinately to heed several warnings that he was headed toward disaster. Result: a barely passing grade (a low "D") in Spanish D, and generally poor grades in other courses.

Student D. On the basis of his score in the test and his grade in the preceding college Spanish course, this student might have been expected to receive a "C" grade. He became completely absorbed in athletics, accumulated a large number of unexcused absences, neglected his studies, and barely passed Spanish D.

Student E made a rather low score in the prognosis test. He had done satisfactory work in the previous college course, but had been out of school for one semester. In a private conference, his attention was called to the fact that his chief weakness seemed to be in Spanish vocabulary. Throughout the semester he made a special effort to remedy this weakness and at the end of the course obtained a high "C" grade, whereas others who scored within five points of his score on the test obtained no better than "D."

Student F made a score of only 38, below the tenth percentile, yet obtained a low "C" grade in the course. He stated that because of illness he had not done himself justice in the test. His grade of "B" in his last semester of high school Spanish indicated that this was true, although his achievement in the general psychological test was quite low. Whatever his native mental equipment may or may not have been, he was the type of person who will "pull himself up by his own boot-straps" if it is possible to do so. He was certainly one of the most serious and industrious individuals in the class.

On the basis of results thus far obtained, the writer proposes to continue administering this test at the beginning of each semester. The score in the test, together with the student's previous scholarship record in Spanish and other subjects, and his achievement in the battery of tests administered to all entering students, should furnish an objective and quite reliable basis for a wise counselling program. Under no circumstances do we propose to be dogmatic and insist upon a certain minimum score in the test as a prerequisite for continuing with Spanish D. The matter could better be handled by means of individual conferences, in which most students, once they realize that they are almost certainly headed for failure, will of their own volition take steps to avoid that failure.

In these conferences, it would appear advisable to attempt to guide students in the following manner:

1. For some students no more language study will be required after completion of Spanish D with a passing grade ("D" or higher). If, then, this is the student's last contact with the language, and if his complete record shows that he is not running too great a risk, he should be advised to continue with Spanish D. His scores in the different parts of the test will indicate his greatest weakness; and he should be guided in a program of remedial study which may help him to overcome this weakness, make a passing grade in Spanish D and at the same time acquire at least a modicum of otherwise valuable or interesting information.

2. If a student must accumulate additional language units *after* Spanish D, if his score indicates that he is a poor risk, and if the rest of his record shows that he *may* in time make up all of his deficiencies, then he should be advised to drop back one semester and take Spanish C. If there has been an interval of a year or more since his last study of the language in high school, some colleges and universities will grant him at least elective credit for Spanish C, even though there be a duplication of credit in semester units.

3. If this is not possible, and if the student refuses to forfeit advanced standing, he should probably be advised to begin the study of a new language. Some teachers are opposed to this plan, arguing that it is better to know a good deal about one language than little or nothing about two or more. While this is a valid argument, it seems probable that if this particular student takes up another language and continues to study it for more than

one semester, he will be better off than if he attempts to struggle against the tide in Spanish.

4. Those students whose entire record indicates that they are not prepared to carry out successfully a full program of academic college study—and they form a rather high percentage of the enrollment in junior college classes—present the greatest problem. Where a suitable curriculum of survey or terminal courses is available, it seems obvious that these students should at least be *advised* to transfer into that type of work. Perhaps it is in this field that junior college language instructors still have their greatest work before them. Wherever the college administrative officers will take the initiative or will cooperate in a well-conceived program of counselling and of partial segregation, it seems advisable for language instructors to devise and develop new courses which will offer the so-called “terminal” student a content of greater satisfaction and profit than the traditional language course. It seems equally obvious that this would be a more honest and eventually a more profitable procedure than to attempt to transform the traditional courses into the type suggested above, pretending all the while that they are the same courses being offered in four year colleges and universities.

When the Latin-American Comes to College

E. A. MERCADO

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(Author's summary.—Latin-American students in our institutions of learning should in no sense be segregated from the other students by isolating them in groups. They should be allowed free social contact with Americans so that they can better learn our ways and understand our civilization and ideals.

EVERY year there are several thousands of Latin-American students who come to the United States and distribute themselves among the many institutions of learning we so wisely have created in this land of the free. With the new interest afoot for a better understanding of the Latin countries to the south of us the number of students who come to us is on the increase and if the Pan-American movement as launched by the New Deal is genuine and well directed, there is all reason to believe that that group of students will soon grow to be of immense proportions.

Now the question has come to me, Why do those students come to this country? First of all we have to admit that there is a war in Europe and so they come to the United States because it is safer. Then there are a few, very few so far, who come on exchange scholarships, and some who would come anyway because of the lure of a foreign country; yet in the mind of all of them there are many, varied, and good reasons.

For one thing, who in Latin America has not heard of the great nation of the Stars and Stripes? They have studied about it in school, they have read about it in books and newspapers, they have seen pictures of it in the movies, they have heard of Charles Lindbergh, Henry Ford, Rockefeller, Niagara Falls, the Statue of Liberty, Brooklyn Bridge, the slaughter houses of Chicago, the breweries of Milwaukee, the Golden Gate of California, the Rocky Mountains, and the Colorado Canyon. All these people, places, and things are enough to arouse the minds to the desire of seeing them and I dare say that there are very few persons in this world of ours who at some time or other have not cherished a desire to visit the United States. This being true, the mind of the Latin-American student because it is young and vigorous and fresh and is endowed with the fertility of imagination that the Spaniard gave him, is more than eager to come, travel, see, and learn.

There are many other reasons why Latin-American students like to go to school in the United States. They feel toward learning the English language even keener than we feel toward Spanish and Portuguese, and they all study English for they think no education is complete without it as this is the most universally spoken language. And let me mention right here that next in order is Spanish.

In Latin-American countries American trained dentists and doctors are always highly regarded. This goes also for engineers, but more so the first

two. This is so because the American professional is always practically trained. An American dentist must know well all about the intricacies of bridge work because he is thoroughly trained to do that work with his own hands before he is given the right to practice. The American surgeon is an expert at wielding the knife because he knows his anatomy from actually having dissected human bodies before taking up the specialty of surgery, and because he has been present at a large number of surgical operations and has actually helped if not performed operations with his own hands in up-to-the-minute hospitals before he has the right to practice. This kind of training is not obtained in all countries and naturally it is a very good reason why Latin-Americans are choosing and will choose more and more American institutions for the training of their youth.

The fact stands that we have these students in our midst and that every year we are going to have more of them. Now in my mind, if we want to develop a sincere bond of friendship with the Latin-American nations, here is our opportunity—one which should develop into something real and lasting. The problem to me is how is this going to be done? What are we going to do for the Latin-American student to make a friend of him—a lasting friend?

First of all I think we should establish certain facts in our minds about the Latin-Americans.

They are human beings like us, with feelings and emotions like ours, with minds trained in a different way and atmosphere, with perhaps not as much a sense of responsibility, but with a higher respect for the law of the land than we seem to have. A Latin-American does not break the law wantonly.

The Latin-Americans are a people generally white. At times there is an admixture of Indian and some negro blood, but we, as a rule, have only to do with the whites, for among the students who come to us there is hardly any Indian and very seldom, black blood; so we have to admit that when dealing with the students of Latin-America we are dealing with those selected from the best.

The Latin-Americans are a people similar to us in that they too fought for their independence from Spain and Portugal. If we have our Washington and Lincoln they have their Bolivar and San Martin. If we have a high sense of patriotism and a high civic pride theirs is no less high if it is not higher. We are generally Protestant; they are generally Catholic. Their civilization in many instances is older than ours and of course different from ours in being affected by a Latin influence rather than a Saxon one.

Now, because of the differences in civilization, religion, people, and training, and even more because of the lack of understanding, the Latin-Americans have erroneous views of us and some which are not so erroneous.

The old story about the Statue of Liberty lowering its hand at a time when a pure woman should pass under it has been well propagated in Latin-America, and since it came from the very lips of American citizens, why

not believe it? So the Latin-American has come to think that the morals of the American woman are rather low without stopping to think that here we have different standards and different customs.

The Latin-American has no coeducational institutions and the relation between the sexes is rather formal. A respectable young lady cannot and must not ever be seen alone with a man. If such is the case her reputation is ruined mostly forever. So, in their mind, how can it be otherwise with the American woman who goes out with a man and does not return home till one or two in the morning? They know that this is a general custom in the United States, so how can women be pure and sweet? Their conclusion is that all are bad because they all go out with men and are alone with them.

A goodly number of Latin-Americans think the American people a mercenary people—a people who do everything for money. They believe that where our dollar says: "In God we trust," the word "God" should be changed to "dollar" and that perhaps with a capital "D."

There is also a group in Latin-America who think the Monroe Doctrine is no less than a forced protection that they do not want or need and that it has no element of altruism, but instead has a basis of egotism which is supported by force.

It is hard for the Latin-American to forget the War with Mexico and what they call the "Dollar Diplomacy of the Caribbean" by which Cuba and San Domingo, practically speaking, have been made dependencies of the United States; Puerto Rico has been turned into an enslaved country without opportunities; the Panama Republic was created by sheer trick, so that the Panama Canal could come into being; General Sandino (considered by them a hero) was persecuted by the Marines. And finally they are offended by the general attitude of superiority of the Americans with whom they come in contact in their own countries. Their mind has been so affected by all these past acts of the Colossus of the North (as they are wont to call the United States), that they always look with a skeptical air upon any movement of friendship offered from the North.

If the United States is going to make any headway in the direction of good will in Latin America that spirit of suspicion must disappear. To do this the Latin-American students must be made to come in contact with the best people of this country. We must treat them as human beings, we must be sincere and generous with them, and we must let them feel that the spirits of Washington and Lincoln still hover among us.

The matter of making proper contacts in this country is of very great importance. In some institutions of learning the Latin-American student at times is not looked after in any way, sense, or manner, and well we know that if any student needs attention, it is he—away from home for the first time, in a foreign country with a foreign language and customs foreign to him, with no friends, with the possibility of only going home at the best every two years. With all these prospects before him and his erroneous views

of this country, is it any wonder that he gets into trouble and often gives a very wrong impression of what the Latin-Americans stand for?

In some universities he is classed with the other foreign students and so his social contacts are in the International House or some such group. When he comes to the United States we want him to learn, and to respect this country so we can develop bonds of friendship with him. Yet we throw him in intimate contact with Hindus, Japanese, and Chinese who are fine boys and girls, but who are altogether different races from the Caucasian people and who are far from being Americans.

I am sure and very glad of the fact that all Latin-American students are not grouped as above stated, for I know there are exceptions, but the generality of the grouping is true nevertheless.

In these international houses the people who guide and advise foreign students many times fail to help them because they do not understand the background and the psychology of the race they have to deal with. An individual may know how to help a Chinese student, but does that qualify him at the same time to help and guide a Latin-American? I'd say no, because, as a rule, he feels superior and does not understand the trend of the foreign mind.

I believe the Latin-Americans should be directed away from International groups. They should be allowed to shift almost for themselves among the rest of the American students, but with some well prepared person who is sympathetic to them to get them together from time to time, yet independently from other nationalities. This person should see to the comforts and needs of the student from helping them to obtain the proper quarters to live in, to advising them on scholastic and social problems and to even make it possible for them as individuals to make the proper social contacts and friends.

The college fraternity and sorority could be brought into play in this relation with very good results, for it is through these American groups that the Latin-American could be given a fair chance to see a true cross section of American social life and through them many of the strongly formed but erroneous views of the Latin-American could be molded into the right shape and the right correction made.

I know that not all Latin-American students could or would be made members of the various Greek letter societies and I also know that many have been members in the past, but I believe that more of the better candidates should be encouraged into joining such groups. And, above all, I believe that the Latin-American student should not be discouraged from joining a fraternity or a sorority. Anyone who does so is not working for the altruistic purpose of creating a better bond of friendship with our brothers to the South.

The Latin-American who joins a fraternity would be lost to the International group, but what of it? That is just what I recommend for all of them.

I want the Latin-American among the Americans and not among other races. I want them to lose themselves among the American mass so that they can have a chance to learn a good brand of English and so that they can learn the true meaning of the American society. I don't want the Latin-American necessarily to become an American (though in many instances this is what will happen), but I do want the Latin-American to learn the real spirit of America so that he may have a better understanding of the American institutions, American ways, the American woman, American sports, American manners. Thus when he goes back to his native land he can be proud of what he learned from us and about us, and we will have more true and loyal friends below the Rio Grande and we can be sure that he will convince many of the people back home that the American nation is one that can truly be trusted and respected. In this manner our chain of friendship through the students will never end.

• Correspondence •

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*.

Sir:—

In the March issue of this *Journal* (xxv, 6, 456 ff.) there appeared an article by Professor Winthrop H. Rice, entitled "Liberal Arts and the School of Education," which proposed to answer some of the questions concerning the present position of liberal arts colleges that I had raised in an earlier issue.¹ In my article I had given expression to the fact that we of liberal arts had lost most of our influence in public school affairs and had suggested that we attempt to regain at least some of it by coöperating with grammar and high school teaching staffs, with boards of education, and with teachers' colleges. I had, moreover, regretted the evidences in public school programs of a constantly diminishing emphasis of purely cultural and disciplining subjects and had urged that an attempt be made to raise the requirements in the public schools.

Assuming that my article had grown out of a spirit of rivalry and ill-feeling toward the teachers' colleges, Professor Rice begins by pointing out that the two types of colleges "are not fundamentally enemies," and that there is a definite place for both. He then hints at the absurdity of fear for the future of liberal arts by calling to the reader's attention that the problems involved in the proper relationship between liberal arts colleges and teacher-training institutions are even now in the process of being solved. One solution he sees in the "all-university" type of teachers' college, with its system of "dual-professorships," as exemplified in the School of Education at Syracuse University. A second solution he considers the so-called "five-year program" (which, we are told, is soon to become legal requirement in the state of New York).

Especially the existence of this "five-year program," Professor Rice believes, ought to "allay the fears" of all those who share the views expressed in my article, for it is full of promise for the future. The public school teachers who will come out of this system will not only be more mature and have a stronger professional spirit, but will also be better trained, have a broader background in cultural subjects, be able to teach better, and will thus self-evidently raise the standards in the schools. We need but wait, therefore, and these problems will solve themselves.

To be sure, if this were a true picture of the state of affairs, it certainly would be most cheering and would leave no cause for complaint. Unfortunately, however, actual conditions do not warrant such an optimistic point of view.² Moreover, some of the writer's implications are as untenable as they are unjustifiable. Regarding these I should like to say: 1) far from evidencing ill-feeling and a spirit of antagonism, my article was a plea for full and sympathetic cooperation; 2) no one, I am sure, would ever deny that the two types of colleges "can do a very great deal together which neither one

¹ U. E. Fehlau, "What About Liberal Arts?", *Modern Language Journal*, XXIV, 4, 243-245.

² As an example to the contrary one might mention the pamphlet *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*. Cf. *Modern Language Journal*, XXV, 2, 148-149, and *ibid.*, 5, 357-358.

nor the other could possibly do alone," nor was there a trace of such a denial in my article; 3) we of liberal arts have absolutely no quarrel with an emphasis on professional training, but we definitely feel that the teacher must also have something to teach, i.e., possess a thorough knowledge of the subject matter; 4) the existence of one ideal school of education (for the writer admits that the School of Education at Syracuse University is unique) is certainly encouraging and may even (let us hope) lead to many similar institutions, but for the time being it constitutes merely a small voice crying in the wilderness; and 5) however desirable and superior the "five-year program" is, it will, by the very nature of things, be little able to affect public school curricula, for that is usually a matter subject to state legislation.

However, Professor Rice's enthusiastic and optimistic approach to the solution of the problems involved, and his evident desire for closer cooperation between the two types of colleges are certainly commendable. Splendid it would be indeed, if all educationists and liberal arts scholars were similarly minded.

ULAND E. FEHLAU
University of Cincinnati
Cincinnati, Ohio.

• Meetings of Associations •

THE Fourth Annual Joint Meeting of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the American Classical League in coöperation with the American Association of School Administrators took place on Tuesday, February 25, 1941, in Atlantic City, New Jersey.

The following program was given:

Presiding: Rollin H. Tanner, New York University.

Foreign Languages in Life, Dean Henry Grattan Doyle, George Washington University.

Foreign Languages in the Curriculum, Mr. William Milwitzky, Supervisor of Modern Languages, Newark, N. J.

Foreign Languages in the Classroom, Dr. John F. Gummere, William Penn Charter School, Germantown, Pa.

Foreign Languages from the Standpoint of the Administrator, Superintendent David E. Weglein, Baltimore Public Schools.

Discussion

Joint Directing Committee: M. JULIA BENTLEY, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; WILTON W. BLANCKÉ, South Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.; WILBERT L. CARR, Teachers College, Columbia University; WILLIAM MILWITZKY, West Side High School, Newark, N. J.; STEPHEN L. PITCHER, *Secretary*, Board of Education, St. Louis, Mo.; ROLLIN H. TANNER, *Chairman*, New York University.

Local Committee on Arrangements: ARTHUR S. CHENOWETH, Superintendent of Schools, Atlantic City; HENRY M. CRESSMAN, Superintendent of Public Schools of Atlantic County; ADA DOW, *Chairman*, High School, Atlantic City; GLENN C. HELLER, Principal, Junior High School, Atlantic City; CHARLES R. HOLLENBACH, Principal, High School, Atlantic City; JOHN P. LOZO, Principal, High School, Wildwood; GEORGE W. MEYER, Principal, High School, Ocean City; HUBERT H. SMITH, Principal, High School, Hammonton.

• “What Others Say—” •

THE FUTURE OF GERMAN¹

“GERMAN will continue to be a required course in the biological curriculum even if it should become a dead language, even if the German people were wiped from the face of the earth,” declared Dr. Thurlow C. Nelson, head of the department of biology, Rutgers University.

He explained that scientists must continually go back to source materials and that the better biology sources are written in German. “During the 19th century, the United States was too busy hewing out an empire to make great strides in science,” Nelson said, “Should some other nation make notable contributions to science, even Soviet Russia, although I see no signs of it, we should proceed to learn their language,” he explained.

• Notes and News •

RESOLUTION ADOPTED BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF FRENCH, AT ITS MEETING IN BOSTON, DECEMBER 28, 1940

WHEREAS: The American Youth Commission, and other cooperating organizations, have sponsored, approved and caused to be circulated, a pamphlet prepared by a special committee, entitled: “What the High Schools ought to Teach,” in which the value of what it calls “conventional subjects” is treated very summarily and slightly, with, among other things, reference to the ninth grade program as “perhaps more vicious than any other,” specifying that this grade “includes required courses in English Composition and Algebra and two or more courses of the following: foreign languages, science, history”; now, therefore, be it

RESOLVED: That the American Association of Teachers of French unites with other language associations in protesting vigorously against the composition of the committee appointed to draw up such a report, since large and important educational groups were not represented, and against the circulation of the report in which unwarranted assumptions are presented with the force of conclusions.

Officers

President, Stephen A. Freeman, Middlebury College	Editor, Miss Helene Harvitt, Brooklyn, New York
Secretary-Treasurer, James B. Tharp, Ohio State University	Business Manager, Harry Kurz, Queens College

Members of the Executive Council

Stephen H. Bush, University of Iowa	Russell P. Jameson, Oberlin
Andrée Bruel, Wellesley College	Frederic Ernst, New York University
Antony Constans, Birmingham Southern College	Edmond A. Méras, Townsend-Harris High School
Casimir D. Zdanowicz, University of Wisconsin	

CALIFORNIA SERVICE BUREAU

For bibliographies, pictures, addresses and sources for teaching aids and realia in Spanish, French, Italian and German, modern language teachers are urged to write to the Service Bu-

¹ Excerpt from the New Brunswick (N.J.) *Sunday Times*, December 15, 1940.

reau of the Modern Language Association of Northern and Central California, Mission High School, 18th and Dolores Streets, San Francisco, California.

SUMMER INSTITUTE FOR INTENSIVE TRAINING IN PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH

THE AMERICAN COUNCIL of Learned Societies has been enabled by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation to offer during the summer of 1941 two intensive language courses: one in Portuguese and the other in Spanish. The courses will be of nine weeks' duration, and will be held on the campus of the University of Wyoming at Laramie from June 23 to August 22. Not more than thirty students will be accepted in each language, and each student will be expected to devote his entire attention to the study of one of the two languages. No previous training in Portuguese or Spanish is required.

The coolness of the summer in Laramie should greatly contribute to the possibility of carrying out the program of intensive and sustained study without undue fatigue. The Administration of the University of Wyoming has graciously coöperated in making available the facilities of the campus, but instruction offered at the Institute will be conducted independently of the University's Summer Session. The staff of instructors will include Dr. William Berrien of the American Council of Learned Societies, Professor Marion A. Zeitlin of the University of California at Los Angeles, Dr. Francis Millet Rogers of the Society of Fellows of Harvard University, Lic. Andrés Iduarte of Columbia University, a tutor for each language, and four native graduate assistants in conversation.

The work to be offered at the Institute is intended primarily for graduate students in the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences, as well as for other adults of professional status (librarians, journalists, engineers, teachers, social workers, lawyers, government employees, etc.) who give evidence of a need for intensive training in the language chosen, in their research, lecturing, teaching, and professional work. The courses are designed to make it possible for students in the Institute to gain control of Portuguese or Spanish for use in their professional work and for communication with their present or future colleagues in Latin America. Although ample time will be devoted to the reading of general literature, professional periodicals and books, and newspapers, special attention will be given to pronunciation and to oral and aural command of the language. At least half of the classroom instruction will be given to small groups, and students will be encouraged to read widely Portuguese or Spanish works in their respective fields, *e.g.*, history, economics, anthropology, fine arts, political science, agriculture, etc. In addition to written materials especially prepared for the courses, such other teaching aids will be used as lectures, phonograph records, electrical transcriptions of radio programs which have been broadcast in South America, and motion pictures (each film to be repeated several times). Opportunities for discussion and conversation in the language chosen for study will be plentiful and varied in nature.

A limited number of study-aids will be available for assistance to qualified persons who cannot meet the full expense of attendance at the Institute. It is estimated that the over-all expenses for the nine weeks' session, exclusive of the costs of transportation, will range from \$160 to \$190. Admission will be granted only to serious and competent persons who can show a specific need for the work to be offered at the Institute. For circulars, application-blanks for admission, and other information, address The Administrative Secretary, American Council of Learned Societies, 907 Fifteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

THE A.A.T.F. FRENCH TEACHER CENSUS

DURING the year 1940-41 the American Association of Teachers of French is carrying on a "French Teacher Census" along with its usual membership campaign. Business-return post-cards bear a questionnaire on memberships in professional societies, amount of training in French, the type of school and present classes, teaching loads, pupil enrollments and course offerings.

Returns are coming in slowly, mostly from present or past members of the A.A.T.F., and although more questionnaires are being mailed, we realize that final returns will be only a sampling of the total and not complete. Some 1200 cards have been received, however, and it seems worthwhile to report on the first item, "subscriptions to professional periodicals," which may well be an index to other answers yet to be reported. It must be remembered that the persons responding are French teachers and that other subscriptions beyond the *Modern Language Journal*, and perhaps the M.L.A., show the variations of interests and pursuits.

TABLE I
FOREIGN LANGUAGE SUBSCRIPTIONS OF 1200 FRENCH TEACHERS,
BY WHEELER REPORT REGIONS*

No.	Name	No. of states	<i>Mod. Lang. Journal</i>	<i>French Review</i>	<i>Hispania</i>	<i>German Quarterly</i>
I	New England	(6)	65	130	6	1
II	Mid. Atlantic (inc. D.C.)	(6)	106	306	14	8
III	Southern† (W. Va., Ky., La.)	(11)	60	142	19	1
IV	North Central (Ohio, Iowa, Minn.)	(7)	120	182	13	8
V	Central (Ark., Okla., Mo., Kan., Neb.)	(5)	32	39	9	1
VI	South Western (Tex., Colo., not Calif.)	(6)	1	3	2	0
VII	North Western (Dak., Ore., Wash.)	(7)	1	4	0	0
VIII	California	(1)	18	20	4	2
IX	Alaska and Canada		1	3	0	0
	Totals		404	829	67	21

* See *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages* (Vol. IV), Macmillan, 1928.

† The states listed show boundaries; in VI, Colorado was the only state from which a report has been received; in VII, only Idaho, Montana and Oregon reported.

TABLE II
FOREIGN LANGUAGE SUBSCRIPTIONS, SINGLE AND IN COMBINATIONS,
OF 1200 FRENCH TEACHERS IN 1940-41

Subscription to:	<i>Modern Language Journal</i>	<i>French Review</i>	<i>Hispania</i>	<i>German Quarterly</i>	Person Totals
Alone	69	469	7	1	546
M.L.J. with		274 (or)	6 (or)	1	281
F.R. with			18 (or)	2	20
Combination of Three	* (and)	* (and)	*		32
	* (and)	*	(and)	*	8
	*	(and)	* (and)	*	2
All Four	* (and)	* (and)	* (and)	*	6
Subscription Totals	398	809	71	20	895

The two tables are self-explanatory and it must be realized that about 300 of the respondents subscribe to none of the four journals. There are some discrepancies in totals in the two tables that must be checked. It may be stated that of the respondents 351 are members of the M.L.A. and 252 of one other society with the A.A.T.F.; 129 belong to two other societies, 30 to three other, 3 to four other, and 1 to six other societies. The tabulations are the work of Miss Pauline McCreary, Teacher of French at Newark, Ohio.

JAMES B. THARP

Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

AID TO EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS—INTERSTATE AND INTERNATIONAL

"Travel and Teach"

PURPOSE: To help widely separated American teachers exchange positions for one year. To help administrators locate superior candidates for exchange positions. Since few teachers have been able to make their own exchange arrangements, International Exchange Teachers has been organized to act as an intermediary to facilitate exchange agreements; thus serving as a clearing-house. These exchanges are made for one year, and each teacher is expected to return to his own school at the end of the year. Exchanges can be made between states or between The United States and various other countries of the Americas.

VALUES: Past exchanges have benefited both the schools and the teachers as follows:

1. Development of new ideas and interests through new experiences.
2. Better teaching of languages, social sciences, creative arts, etc.
3. Increased appreciation of other peoples and enjoyment of their cultures.
4. Broader perspective of one's own country through comparisons.
5. Improved educational methods through comparisons.

In brief: *Broader living for teachers to enrich and vitalize teaching.*

SALARY ARRANGEMENT: To protect teacher tenure and retirement increment, the schools of most states pay their own teachers regular salaries while away on the exchange. As each community pays its own teacher, it receives in his place an equally well-qualified teacher paid by the exchange community. In this way each school is "lending" a teacher to the other. Other arrangements are made in the five states whose laws require that their schools pay the visiting teachers. Latin American exchanges require special salary adjustments.

SELECTIVE QUALITIES: Sociable—Adaptable—Capable—Tolerant—Cooperative.

OBLIGATIONS: To go as an ambassador of goodwill. This organization agrees to make every effort to help qualified teachers arrange desirable exchanges.

International Exchange Teachers—423 West 120 Street, New York City.

TRAVEL GRANTS AUTHORIZED UNDER SECOND DEFICIENCY ACT TO CERTAIN STUDENTS FROM THE OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS TO ENABLE THEM TO TAKE ADVANTAGE OF SCHOLARSHIPS AWARDED THEM IN COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES

TRAVEL grants have been awarded by the Government of the United States under the Second Deficiency Act of 1940 to eighteen students and professors from the other American Republics, as part of the program to develop closer inter-American relations. These grants were made available to persons from the more distant republics who otherwise would not have been able to take advantage of scholarships which had been awarded them in the United States, principally through the Institute of International Education of New York, New York. Payment of their necessary travel expenses from their homes to this country and return was authorized under an appropriation voted by the 76th Congress.

Four of the students come from Argentina, six from Brazil, six from Chile, one from Ecuador, and one from Peru. They have been awarded fellowships by the following institutions in this country: Leland Stanford University, Tufts College, University of Florida, University of Pennsylvania, Johns Hopkins University, University of Minnesota, Rollins College, University of California (2), University of Chicago, New York University, University of Michigan, Catholic University of America, Iowa State College, Bryn Mawr College, Ohio State University, and Louisiana State University (2). The awards made by these institutions are in addition to the Government fellowships under the Buenos Aires Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations.

A wide range of interests is revealed by the fields of study in which these individuals are to specialize, as follows: medicine, political science, civil engineering, meteorology, food analysis, railroad economics, electrical engineering, social work (2), library science (2), psychology, economics, education (2), botany, agriculture and methods of teaching history and literature.

Included in this group is Dr. Cesar Vargas Calderon, Professor of Botany in the University of Cuzco, Peru, who was awarded a fellowship by the University of California.

Through the cooperation of Acting President Paul M. Hebert of Louisiana State University, and the Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America of the American Library Association, two fellowships in the School of Library Science at Baton Rouge were made available to two members of the staff of the Municipal Library of São Paulo, Brazil. The recipients of these fellowships are Senhor Francisco José de Almeida Azevedo, who is assistant to the Chief Cataloguer, and Senhorita Maria Leonor Voigtlander, assistant librarian. The São Paulo Municipal Library now has under construction a magnificent new building, which is expected to be one of the finest and most modern library structures in the world. The director of the Library, Dr. Rubens Borba de Moraes, made a visit to the United States a year ago under the auspices of the Rockefeller Foundation.

TRAVEL GRANTS FOR DISTINGUISHED EDUCATIONAL, PROFESSIONAL, AND ARTISTIC LEADERS OF THE OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS TO VISIT THE UNITED STATES

THE DIVISION of Cultural Relations of the Department of State has extended invitations to thirty distinguished educational, professional and artistic leaders of the other American republics to visit the United States. Funds to defray the cost of these trips were provided in the Second Deficiency Act of 1940. Arrangements for the itineraries of the visitors are being worked out in cooperation with the colleges and universities of the United States.

The interests of the persons invited include writing and journalism, education, history, architecture, engineering, physiology, sociology and anthropology, music and the fine arts, and classical studies. Most of the visits were made between January and April, 1941, since the summer vacation periods in the South American countries usually run from the end of December to the last of March.

The first visitors invited under this program have already arrived in the United States. Father Aurelio Espinosa Polit, S. J., Director of the Colegio de Cotacollao of Quito, Ecuador, reached New York on December 16. Since that time, he has been in touch with scholars in the universities in and near Washington and Baltimore. He also plans to visit other universities, notably, Princeton, Fordham, Harvard, Chicago and Northwestern. His itinerary will also take him to Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, and to Saint Louis and Cincinnati.

Father Espinosa is one of the most distinguished Latinists and Hellenists of Ecuador and one of the most noted in Spanish America. He has taught Latin and Greek for many years in the Colegio de Cotacollao. His translations of Virgil are considered among the best that have been done in Spanish. Father Espinosa has published a large number of critical works on Virgil and other classical authors as well as a considerable body of original poetry. He was trained in Belgium, France and Spain and studied two years at the University of Cambridge in England.

The second visitor to arrive is Señor Fernando Romero of Lima, Peru. Commander Romero is an officer in the Peruvian navy, an instructor in the Naval College, and also a distinguished sociologist and novelist. He arrived in New York on the *Santa Clara* on December 30 and spent the first week of his stay in this country in Washington, where the Pan American Union arranged a lecture in Spanish by him on January 7 on Peruvian music and folklore. Later he visited Northwestern, Chicago, Vanderbilt, Fisk and Atlanta Universities.

For several years Commander Romero has been interested in the study and investigation of Negro folklore and survivals in Peru. One of his earliest works on the subject was a study entitled *La Costa Zamba*. He has also published a considerable number of short stories, the best known collection of which is that entitled *Doce Cuentos de la Selva*, based on his personal travel and observations in the Department of Loreto and his residence of many months in Iquitos. Commander Romero was the founder and is the present director of the Peruvian literary group known as "Insula." He has collaborated widely in the Peruvian and foreign press and periodicals on literary and sociological topics.

CONFERENCE OF THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP will hold its first International Conference in the western hemisphere at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, July 6-12, 1941. Previous conferences of the Fellowship have been held in Heidelberg, Germany; Locarno, Switzerland; Elsinore, Denmark; Cheltenham, England, and other centers in Europe. It is significant that the United States, whose national efforts are now directed toward strengthening democracy throughout the world, should be host to this important gathering.

The New Education Fellowship is an international organization which was founded in 1915. It has fifty-one national sections, with journals in fifteen different languages. Since 1932 the Progressive Education Association has been the United States section of the Fellowship. Just as the Progressive Education Association has been concerned with the development of a modern program of education in the United States, so the New Education Fellowship in other countries has been the pioneering group in educational experimentation.

While it may seem strange to be holding an international conference in these troubled days, it is more important than ever that the bonds of exchange between educators throughout the world should be maintained. The plans for this conference are being developed by educators from Canada, Mexico, and the United States. Representatives from each of the South American republics will be brought to the conference. Delegations of teachers and educational leaders from Canada and Mexico are already assured. Students, scholars, and leaders from European countries, now in the United States, will participate. Laurin Zilliacus, formerly Rektor of the Tolo Svenska Samskola in Helsingfors, Finland, International President of the New Education Fellowship, has indicated that he will be present and will bring to the conference the latest reports on educational developments in Europe. Sr. Luis Sánchez Pontón, Minister of Education of Mexico, will take part officially.

The conference program includes two general sessions daily, morning and evening, at which leaders from various nations will discuss educational problems and present the latest developments of education in their respective countries. Leaders from the United States will discuss the problems that education faces in a world increasingly interdependent.

During each day groups will study educational problems common to all countries and will hear details of the educational programs of other nations. A series of seminar meetings in the afternoon will present the literature, art, music, and culture of Central and South America. For teachers in schools that are developing courses or units of study on Latin American relations, these afternoon seminar meetings will provide an unusual opportunity to become better acquainted with the culture of our neighboring republics. One study group at the conference will be devoted to curriculum organization and materials for interpreting Latin America to the boys and girls of the United States; another group will consider curriculum materials and organization of studies to interpret the United States to the youth of other nations.

An International Exhibit of Children's Art from the western hemisphere will be one of the many features of the conference program. Folk dances and songs, a day in Greenfield Village, special symphony concerts, teas, and informal gatherings will fill a week's program with events of special interest to teachers.

This international conference immediately follows the meeting of the National Education Association in Boston, and many teachers who are planning to be in the East for this national meeting will include the week in Ann Arbor in their travel plans. Complete details about the conference may be obtained by writing to the Progressive Education Association, 221 West 57th Street, New York City. Housing accommodations may be obtained through Dr. Raleigh Schorling of the University of Michigan.

It is anticipated that more than 2000 delegates will be in attendance at this first International Conference of the New Education Fellowship in the western hemisphere.

McGILL FRENCH SUMMER SCHOOL ANNOUNCES 1941 COURSE

WITH European countries still closed to American teachers and students who wish to perfect their French, McGill University is expecting a record registration for its famous French Summer School this season. The School provides an unique opportunity of combining an excellent academic French course with a delightful vacation in old French Canada.

The long-established McGill Summer School is one of the best-known French Summer Schools on this continent; it is an integral part of the Faculty of Arts and Science of McGill University. Its courses of study are of university standard for undergraduates, teachers, and graduate students who are working for the McGill M.A. degree; others qualified to take the courses are made very welcome. Certificates show equivalent semester hours for university credit.

The courses are co-educational. The students' Residence is the beautiful new Douglas Hall, built like a modern chateau on the slopes of glorious Mount Royal. In its ultra-modern salons, the School course offers at once an academic and social experience of the greatest value. The School staff is entirely French, and French alone is spoken at all times. Conversation and practical work with the language in this natural French atmosphere are particularly stimulating to the student.

Canada's greatest city, Montreal—said to be the second largest French-speaking city in the world—the beautiful Laurentian Mountains to the north, ancient Quebec City and the romantic St. Lawrence River, offer vacation attractions after the course, or at weekends.

American visitors are particularly welcome in the Province of Quebec. Every effort is made to welcome them and to demonstrate that traditional hospitality and natural courtesy of French-Canadians which render a visit to this Old-World vacationland such a delightful travel experience.

Reviews

What the High Schools Ought to Teach, the Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary Curriculum, Ben G. Graham, Chairman. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1940, 36 pages.

"In recent years several fundamental studies of secondary education have been made by national organizations, special commissions, and others concerned with the improvement of secondary education. Most of these studies have agreed on many important conclusions which, if placed in effect, would result in extensive reorganization of the present activities of secondary schools. Actually, these recent studies have had relatively little effect upon the schools.

This has been caused at least in part by the fact that disagreement over details has obscured the very considerable amount of agreement on the need for certain specific changes of the most far reaching importance.

"Most of the organizations and agencies which have carried on the studies just referred to are represented on a committee of the American Council on Education, a committee known as the Committee on Implementation of Studies in Secondary Education. At a meeting of this committee on January 1940, the situation was discussed and it was agreed that the American Youth Commission would be appropriate agency to organize the preparation of a brief report presenting the major needed changes in the curriculum of American Secondary Schools on which it should now be possible to secure agreement." (*Foreword*)

The American Youth Commission accepted this responsibility and ten men were requested to serve on a committee. These men have been described as "five Professors of Education, three city superintendents, one high-school principal, and the director of an industrial institute"; it may be added that all but two are in *Who's Who in America*. Without debating the feasibility of or reasons for or against inclusion in the committee of representatives from all the secondary-school subject areas, we see here a group of school men trying to reconcile the reports from the various areas, among which are the Classical Investigation and the Modern Language Study.

Some school history is reviewed briefly in the report, from the classical pattern of the "Latin Grammar schools" down to the public free high school with its flood of pupils and another only slightly smaller flood of subject areas. (The first U. S. Office of Education survey of high school offerings in 1890 listed 9 subjects; in 25 years this had grown to 29 subjects; in 1934 there were 206 subjects; 111 rather universally offered, but 95 in fewer than 15 states.) This great increase in enrollment, partly due to compulsory school laws further aggravated by youth unemployment, and the ever-widening range of human knowledge have raised in the schools the conflict between a subsistence education and a white-collar education. Trade and commercial schools have only partly solved the problem as circumstances caused the unemployed to multiply. Hence the crying need "to organize a program of general education that will be suitable for all pupils and at the same time to make provision for specialized training above and beyond general education for various groups of pupils who are preparing for different careers." After all, free schools of a democratic society must provide for individual needs and capacities to learn.

No one will quarrel with a program for continuous growth in reading (remedial where necessary) with library methods to develop a nation of independent readers. Everyone will agree that "young people need to learn to work." But work where: in the family, in self-invented occupations, in school laboratories, in training projects jointly sponsored by business and the school, or finally in jobs created by the community or state? "If the schools are to adopt work as a genuinely acceptable part of their program they will have to be prepared to yield some of the preferred hours of the day which are now devoted to their traditional courses." *Reading and labor* are the first two units of the new program: "a laborer who is a competent reader—a reader who knows how to work."

The third unit is *social studies* (not just history or civics), a body of material about living "on which young people should be able to form wise judgments based on knowledge of the facts." Next comes instruction in *personal problems*: physical and mental health, family life and membership in a community. We have used up 27 pages, and come now to the conventional subjects with a plea that they be "re-examined and criticized with a view to injecting into them the same liberal spirit as that which is exemplified in the new courses advocated above."

English reading has been stressed above but here English composition is found in many cases "deficient in producing mastery of writing techniques." Mathematics courses persist in "abstruse refinement and specialized manipulations"; "why should mathematicians refuse to reorganize the courses in mathematics?" History and natural sciences are far too often ency-

clopedic lists of the findings of scientific research; only rarely do competent teachers make these courses means of vital, effective thinking. Does the reader agree so far? then read and consider each sentence about foreign languages:

"Instruction in foreign languages is another topic on which it is very difficult to secure agreement between specialists in these languages and advocates of general education. Teachers of foreign languages make many claims for their subjects. They say that no young person has ever any clear idea of the structure of language until he has studied some language other than his vernacular. Pupils need to understand the languages of other nations, it is said, in order to gain a sympathetic understanding of strange cultures. If these statements and other claims of language teachers are accepted, and foreign languages continue to consume the time that has been traditionally given to them in the past, it will be very difficult to build up a program of general education to include the new courses that have been recommended as desirable.

"Here again, certain recent experiments seem to show the way out of the situation. Why not serve directly, through a course in general language, the chief needs that are presented by advocates of foreign languages, without attempting to secure that slender and doubtful degree of mastery that is the only outcome for most pupils of the present courses in these languages?" Note that these criticisms are about *most pupils* of the *present courses* and that the report is speaking about a program of *general education*, not the *specialized training* beyond for *different careers*.

No one will deny that the school needs a spirit of unity among subject matter areas rather than laissez-faire compartmentalization or cut-throat competition. The report paints a black picture of the "un-inviting, vicious" program of the 9th grade, much too pessimistic in the opinion of this reviewer. It must be realized, however, that the report is not condemning the subjects mentioned as such, but the planning of the curriculum and the administration of the courses and their content at this stage.

Equally condemned is the way schools graduate pupils out into a cold world and forget them. "The schools ought to be prepared to describe in perfectly explicit terms what a young person is capable of doing, and ought to stand by him with advice and assistance until he finds a place in the adult world." Expansion beyond four years of study into something like the "junior college" is envisaged for those who need further training to be so placed. The secondary curriculum, in the absence of a central agency of guidance, has under local pressures grown up like Topsy and has become just as towseled and awkward. Present government and endowed and private enterprises, such as the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association and the National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning, are in process of providing information and guidance, but for a long time curricular progress will rest in the hands of the faculties of individual schools.

This reviewer fails to see in this report the "all-out" blitzkrieg against foreign language study that has been read into it by many people of our profession. The report needs to be read by all of us and ways found to coöperate with that which is good in it. This reviewer finds in the report little of adverse criticism to foreign languages and similar school areas that has not already been said by writers in each area. Georges Nivon says as much in the December 1940 *Modern Language Forum*. Even more authoritative is the voice of Ernest Koch of New York University in the January 1941 *German Quarterly*. What he says to his college colleagues may be pondered equally well at other levels along with the "cold turkey" talk of the ten educationists. Koch sums up by saying:

"College language people have in the past enjoyed the artificial protection of language requirements. These protective measures are being lifted, and it behooves the modern foreign language groups to read the handwriting on the wall and *anticipate* the new era by realistically facing the situation and making the necessary adjustments, remembering that only such "luxury" courses will remain in any number in the college of tomorrow as are given by competent, sympathetic individuals who are willing and able to adjust the work to the level of the student. It cost Henry Ford several million dollars to learn that what you have to sell must be

more obviously attractive than what your competitor has to sell if you would keep up your volume of business. It will cost modern language teachers a curriculum prominence that can never be regained if they do not soon begin to adjust to the future by observing the fundamental maxim of laissez-faire competition: if you wish to sell successfully you must have a product that can stand competition in the open market."

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Proceedings of the Ohio Workshop on Modern Language Teaching. Sponsored by the Division of Instruction, Department of Education, State of Ohio. Published by the Ohio Council on Modern Language Teaching, September 25, 1940. Distributed by Frederic J. Kramer, Secretary, Ohio State University, Columbus. Price, 40 cents.

This mimeographed work of sixty-six typewritten pages was given its initial impulse in the spring of 1939 by Dr. Franklin H. McNutt, at that time Director of the Division of Instruction of the State Department of Education, who felt keenly the need of better language teaching in Ohio high schools. Questionnaires were sent some fifty teachers of modern language methods courses in the various colleges and universities of Ohio, and an Organizing Committee arranged for a three-day Workshop at Columbus, December 7-9, 1939, to consider the problems raised by the questionnaire. Three committees reported at this meeting and several papers and lectures were delivered. Later a permanent Council on Modern Language Teaching was formed with James B. Tharp and F. J. Kramer of the Ohio State University as Chairman and Secretary respectively. The other sixteen members were chosen from leading high school and college teachers of the State.

The *Proceedings* contain the reports of three principal committees and ten of the papers read at the Workshop, besides invaluable bibliography on language teaching, testing techniques, devices, etc. These papers treat such diverse topics as "An Experiment in the Teaching of Graded Readings (Henry J. Russell), "Objective Testing and Standardized Tests" (Leon P. Irvin), and "The Foreign Language Clubs and Realia" (Russell P. Jameson). One cannot read these *Proceedings* without being stimulated and, at times, irritated. For instance, Committee A, reporting on the content of methods courses, demonstration and observation, supervised student teaching, and so forth, is "unanimously agreed that a knowledge of the history of the language is an indispensable part of the teacher's equipment, and yet it feels that the subject cannot be treated adequately in a methods course." My own observation has been that what most high school teachers need much more urgently is an accurate, practical command of French, Spanish, or German, as spoken and written in the twentieth century. I heartily endorse the Committee's recommendation that elementary college classes be used for supervised teaching under the direction of the methods teacher in places where high school classes are not available.¹ I also approve the suggestion that the State Department of Education should seek "to bring about a more even distribution of French, German, and Spanish." The Committee is thoroughly progressive in recommending a large amount of plateau reading, the teaching of grammar only for use and recognition, the reduction of written exercises in grammar and syntax to a minimum, and the teaching of pronunciation in the high school without the use of phonetic symbols, except possibly in French. The Committee also makes general suggestions for syllabi of two-year high school courses in French, German, and Spanish, to be prepared by the Ohio chapters of the A.A.T.F., A.A.T.G., and A.A.T.S., respectively.

"Committee B considered problems related to the teaching of foreign language cultures and literature in translation; the general language course; correlation and integration; testing and evaluation; standards of achievement; teacher certification, standards, and competency

¹ Laura B. Johnson's *Teacher Training through Participation*, *Modern Language Journal*, vol. vii, pp. 28-37, might be a solution in the smaller colleges.

examinations. And finally, Committee C discussed questions of the foreign language teachers' curriculum; major and minor minima; professional courses in education, success ratings; teacher placement and cadetship; and self-advancement." Their reports make equally interesting reading, but space does not permit discussing them. Committee B approves the general language course in the junior-high school as an incentive to further language study and as an aid to an understanding of English. Committee C "suggests the establishment of a central evaluating bureau composed of representatives from the modern language field, whose function it would be to fix the standards of proficiency to be achieved by the teacher at each step of such a progressive development [as outlined by the Committee]." The candidate would receive a preliminary certificate when just out of college, and ultimately the title "Master Teacher" after several years of successful teaching and further preparation.

Much more startling than these reports are the pronouncements of Dr. McNutt in his paper, "What Ohio Wants in a Language Teacher." He suggests, for example, that our students should learn to read and speak a modern language within six months of study, and contrasts disparagingly the poor speaking ability in French of the average second-year high school student with that of French imbeciles and morons, blaming the poor student showing on our insistence that the foreign grammar be mastered. He would have our high school teachers of French so thoroughly at home in the language and culture that they can "immerse" their pupils in "the purposeful use of the language," in fact, "soak them in tanks of French." Dr. McNutt also finds that our students spend too much time thumbing vocabularies, instead of having the meaning of the foreign words in their heads. He would do away with glossaries, "thumb-licking" and "spit courses" and increase the functional use of the language in the classroom. Dramatically he concludes: "The French moron speaks passing French because he is immersed in it. I would take the tip and have the French classroom a bit of genuine France. I would soak the student in *France* from the moment he entered the room until he left it . . . I would turn on every faucet in the room, conversation, correspondence, literature, art, music, radio, dramatics."

When we hear an educationist talking like this, we instinctively feel that he should be dipped in something stronger than French and that he should have his eyes opened with a powerful mydriatic so that he may gain linguistic insight. We would remind him that he would have us return to the so-called Natural Method of the 1880's which proved a failure. We would remind him further that the French moron is surrounded by many intelligent Frenchmen speaking perfect French, and that he hears and speaks French in everything he does from morning till night. These conditions can never be duplicated in the high school. Let us hope that some of Dr. McNutt's remarks were made with rhetorical exaggeration and even facetiousness.

On the other hand, all modern language teachers of Ohio must welcome Dr. McNutt's interest in better teaching and take to heart such suggestions as these to college teachers of modern foreign languages: "You should resolve that you will never recommend for student teaching or certification anyone who is not competent in the language . . . There are but few good positions in the secondary schools for modern language teachers. Let us save them for the competent. Otherwise you may expect to see the disappearance of modern language [*sic*] from the secondary curriculum." Here he has stated the crux of the whole matter, and both Committees B and C took cognizance of it. At present our Ohio standards are too low. Formerly a student could get a teaching minor in a modern foreign language with only twelve hours college work beyond two high school units in the language (evaluated at three college semester hours per unit). Now the number has been raised to fifteen. Even so, the college student who begins a foreign language can qualify to teach it with only a few hours work beyond the second year (twenty-one semester hours in all). More deplorable still, school superintendents not infrequently waive these minimal State requirements.

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VON SCHWERTNER, E. O., *Fundamental Language Facts*. Gettysburg, Pa.: Gettysburg Times Print Paper.

This work has been prepared because of the author's conviction, necessarily shared by many of "his companions in misery laboring on unprepared students in colleges," that "in the average beginners' class in any language there is generally—a dearth of knowledge fundamental to a thorough understanding of the subject matter."

Accordingly Professor von Schwerdtner of Gettysburg College wrote this "companion to the study of languages" to lay "a foundation of requisite knowledge for, and to establish the familiarity with terms necessary to the learning of a new language." He had in mind its use by freshmen about to take the required course of English A or to begin a foreign language and by high school and college students of any year who are in "confusion as regards the use of grammatical terms." He would have the teacher spend two or three weeks at the beginning of a first year course in using it as a textbook, or assign it as outside reading to be tested by an examination, or make assignments in it, keeping pace with the language textbook.

This is not the first time that a treatise on English grammar and terms has been prepared for the use of students of a foreign language. Consult, among other works, the introduction to Professor Alfred Solomon's *Short French Review Grammar and Composition*. On the other hand, there are but few similar reference works available for the student.

The nine chapters and appendix consider the following problems: the fundamental divisions and definitions, the letter, the syllable, the word, syntax and word order, the phrase, the clause, the sentence, the idiom, figures of speech, and miscellaneous terms. There is an index.

Although the author does not claim that his booklet is absolutely complete, it is well prepared to serve as a satisfactory and useful tool for the language student.

GEO. B. WATTS

Davidson College,
Davidson, North Carolina

SCHWARTZ, MILTON, *Écrire et Parler*. New York and London: Harper and Brothers, 1940. Cloth. Price, \$1.60.

The factual content and the method of its presentation determine to a high degree the success of any book, but especially is this true of a book dealing with set and free composition in a foreign language.

Écrire et Parler aims to teach the student how to write both types of composition through a carefully integrated plan, drawn up in fifty lessons. The plan seeks to cultivate a coherent expression of the student's thoughts through writing and speaking. The choice of vocabulary is guided by the best known frequency lists.

More specifically, each lesson presents a French *texte* (Part A) adapted for dictation, memorization, etc., grammar questions in English, and questions in French based on the *texte*. Then (Part B), a set of expressions in French for sentence-making and memorizing followed by a *thème* (Part C) which forms an added check on the content of the preceding subdivisions. The fourth subdivision (Part D) initiates the student into free composition under the guidance of a carefully constructed outline in French on a topic related to that of the *texte* but more general in its application. For example, in Lesson 34: *Une Promenade en Automobile (Texte); Les Gaçons de Voyager* (Free Composition).

The student is then urged to examine his free composition and to underscore, let us say, once each adjective and twice the word it modifies, and finally to check the adjectives for agreement. And so on through the fifty lessons, self-correction is applied to the common errors of the student—a device, the author says, "to develop a critical attitude toward his work."

Many lessons provide additional material in *Cour les heures libres* (Part E) that deserves special commendation.

Excellent photographs (twelve pages in all, with several photographs on a page) illustrate

many aspects of France and its life. A compendium of grammar and a good vocabulary complete the equipment of the book.

Teachers in schools and colleges faced with the vexing but important matter of teaching free composition will appreciate and want to use the interesting, informative, and abundant material arranged so attractively in this book. It combines material for courses in set and free composition as well as for an introductory course in French civilization.

Dr. Schwartz has made a valuable contribution to modern language teaching.

LESTER C. NEWTON

*Phillips Academy,
Andover, Massachusetts*

SCHINNERER, OTTO P., *Reading German*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Cloth. Price, \$1.25.

This book contains 96 pages of prose and 15 pages of poetry. It is intended for intensive reading and seems well suited in this purpose. The reading matter is interesting and informative, never childish.

All the reading matter has been simplified, but without slavish adherence to the grading principle, so that no apparent artificiality of the language results. The book can be begun in the second college semester or the third, depending on the previous preparation of the class. The simplicity of the first few texts should make the book exceptionally well adapted to third semester classes, where an intervening summer and a diversified classroom population make it desirable to start at a low level.

The vocabulary is well done and adequate. The absence of exercises is a further welcome feature of the book.

I no longer use readers in my classes. If I should ever decide to do so again, I should certainly give this book serious consideration.

WILLIAM KURATH

*University of Arizona,
Tucson, Ariz.*

HELLER, OTTO and LEON, THEODORE H. *Charles Sealsfield, Bibliography of his Writings together with a classified and annotated Catalogue of Literature relating to his works and his life*. With a foreword by Henry A. Pochmann. St. Louis: Washington University Studies, new series, 1939.

The present compilation groups the material under three major headings: A. Sealsfield's works, listing the author's editions, editions since Sealsfield's death, translations into foreign languages, retranslations into German, contributions to periodicals, works supposed to have been destroyed, and, finally, the letters. This is in itself a difficult bibliographical task and it has been skillfully handled. B. Literature on Sealsfield, subdivided into monographs and essays of a general nature, briefer articles, articles bearing on specific biographic aspects, studies of special aspects of Sealsfield's works, and miscellaneous discussions, reviews and casual references. C. Memorabilia, i.e. manuscripts, pictures, inscriptions, tablets and monuments.

This work attempts to present something more than a mere list of books on and by Sealsfield. In most instances the compilers have adhered strictly to the principle of describing, evaluating and interpreting the contents of each important listing, often pointing out sources, errors in fact, and personal bias. Less significant items are occasionally included without comment whenever the arrangement of the material under classified headings seemed adequately descriptive of the content. This procedure incidentally helps to give major articles their proper relative prominence on the printed page.

Despite its inclusion of many obscure references, the bibliography is not to be accepted

as in any sense exhaustive through 1939. The usual unavoidable omissions have occurred, a number of which are listed at the close of this review.¹

In the section on "briefer articles and passages of a general nature" it is difficult to ascertain the principle underlying the inclusion of at least ten general histories of German literature and the exclusion of other similar works. Bartels, Biese, Eloesser, Gottschall, R. M. Meyer, Nadler, Nagl-Zeidler-Castle, Scherr, Schmidt and Stern are listed; consistency might have demanded also the listing of Fechter, Bieber, Mielke-Homann, Koch, Walzel and the new Nadler (1938), to mention only a few who give Sealsfield more than passing consideration.

Although this bibliography does not fulfill completely the claims made for it in Professor Pochmann's somewhat extravagant foreword, it is a valuable and extremely welcome contribution, the most complete work of its sort to date. The shortcomings here discussed are apparent only because of the high standard of excellence which the collaborators have otherwise maintained in this useful compilation.

MARVIN C. DILKEY

Cornell University,
Ithaca, New York

STEARNS, HAROLD EVERETT, JR., *Germany's Military Heroes of the Napoleonic Era in Her Post-War Historical Drama*. University of Michigan Dissertation. Pittsburgh Printing Company, 1939.

Dr. Stearns' dissertation deals with German historical drama from 1919 to 1935. Some idea of the importance of his subject may be gained from the statement that roughly one-fourth of the total dramatic production in Germany since 1918 deals with historical themes, most of which are taken from German history; more than one hundred plays based on the Napoleonic period were first performed or first published during the period under discussion. These figures are indicative of the extent to which the national self-consciousness of the German people sought hope and encouragement after the World War in the rise of Germany after her conquest by Napoleon. The purpose of Dr. Stearns' investigation is to set forth various phases of kinship between the two periods as they are manifest in contemporary plays.

The plays under discussion center about such military heroes as Schill, Yorck, Gneisenau and Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia. The author frankly admits that most of these dramas have little artistic merit, but their importances lies in their reflection of the widespread thoughts, longings and national aspirations of the time. Although he is concerned primarily with their bearing on German nationalism, Dr. Stearns briefly discusses their dramatic qualities, structure, characterization, diction, style, effectiveness on the stage, and the reception accorded them.

The first part of the study is somewhat broken up because of the necessarily brief discussions of a number of plays. But this provides a foundation for analysis of significant themes in the second part. Of particular importance are such themes as widespread criticism of the Hohenzollerns, the motif of duty versus inclination, and the relation of Prussia to Germany.

¹ A partial list of omissions:

Sedler, O.: "Sealsfield am Znaimer Gymnasium" in *Dt. Heimat*, 10, 1 pp. 33 ff.

Mrasek, K. N.: "Charles Sealsfield-Karl Postl" in *Sudelendeutsche Monatshefte*, 1938, 6. Brachet (June), pp. 303 ff.

Hill, Murray G.: "Some of Longfellow's Sources for the second part of *Evangeline*," *P.M.L.A.*, 1916, vol. xxi, 2, n.s., vol. xxiv, 2, pp. 161 ff.

Dilkey, M. C.: "A Critical Investigation of Charles Sealsfield's Literary Style," *Cornell Univ. Abstracts of Theses*, 1937, pp. 46 ff.

Goebel, Julius, "Das Deutschtum in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika" in *Der Kampf um das Deutschtum*, Heft 16, 1904.

Knöller, Fritz: "Charles Sealsfield, Deutsch-Amerikaner, und seine Erzählungen aus dem südamerikanischen Befreiungskrieg." *Zeitschr. für deutsche Geistesarbeit in Südamerika*, n.s., 1929, pp. 3 ff.

The conclusions are based on discriminating evaluation of a large body of material, and are marked by cogent reasoning. Although some readers may find the first part less likely to hold their interest, they will find considerable in the second part which sheds light on contemporary Germany. Once more the close relation between German literature, history, thought and life becomes manifest. And it is important to note that the same themes, aims, hopes and ambitions are to be found in dramas of literary merit as in the wide range of plays which have but little or no claim to esthetic value.

This monograph is based on wide reading, and is the product of patient delving into many plays which will doubtless never be recorded by literary historians. Nevertheless, this sub-literature assumes a certain significance because it is symptomatic. The documentation is extensive, and the lengthy bibliography gives evidence of careful compilation. There is a slight inconsistency in bibliographical data, since not all the articles in journals are listed with references to pages (pp. 142-145). Parallels between conditions in Germany during the Napoleonic oppression and the period after the World War are well formulated.

JOHN C. BLANKENAGEL

Wesleyan University,
Middletown, Connecticut

ROSENHAUPT, HANS WILHELM, *Der deutsche Dichter um die Jahrhundertwende und seine Abgelöstheit von der Gesellschaft*. (= Sprache und Dichtung, Forschungen zur Sprach- und Literaturwissenschaft, herausgegeben von Maync, Singer und Strich, Heft 66) Bern-Leipzig: Haupt, 1939. Price, 9 frs.

The object of this study is to ascertain through a comprehensive analysis of the work of such men as Hauptmann, the two Manns, Hofmannsthal, Rilke, George and others the social attitude and function of the 'poet' around the year 1900. Its title is chosen with singular precision and courage, for it indicates the result of its findings and betrays in its limitation both its strength and weakness. A sociological typology of the poet around 1900 is developed in its nine chapters, which may be briefly summed up as follows: An attitude of critical detachment toward society and toward its own work and mission robs the poet of a firm rooting in his society and time, of a firm and positive philosophy of life, and of an ability to shape his own destiny and that of his contemporaries. This uncertainty in regard to the basic questions of the whence and whither of humanity and its ideals leads to a fragmentary grasp and presentation of life, which thus becomes unreal and dreamlike and in which the poet leads a solitary and insular existence. He is in it and not of it, contemplative but not creative of new values.

The fruitfulness of such a static cross section through the poetic production of a period lies in the cumulative evidence of certain tendencies of the time, its weakness in the self-imposed renunciation to any historical interpretation. It does make a difference whether certain results in the development of a writer or literary current spring from naturalistic, impressionistic, or neoromantic sources, from ethical or esthetic orientations. The influence of Mach (who strangely enough is not mentioned in this study), Nietzsche, and Schopenhauer seems peculiarly blended in this era, one paralyzing the other in a way that new orientations become almost imperceptible, so that creative ideas take the form of negative criticism.

It is for this reason, it seems to me, that shades of meaning and slight changes of direction escape the investigator's attention. Hofmannsthal's altered attitude toward the problem becomes evident in the period beyond the compass of Mr. Rosenhaupt's attention, but it begins to germinate in *Tor und Tod* and asserts itself in *Abenteuer und Sängerin*, where the adventurer leaves the stage defeated and Vittoria (!), reintegrated, remains as the hero of the play. Schnitzler also seems to me of more positive significance through the decisiveness of his criticism and the ever recurring role of the *Tor* than the few quotations from his work in the present study might indicate. The summation of his work establishes a positive ideal. But a certain correction of Mr. Rosenhaupt's conclusion is already indicated in his own statement that the historian of

literature must interpose himself between the poet and his public and through his interpretation draw the moral for his society from works which are not meant as a moral (p. 244).

The picture we get in this typology is somewhat two-dimensional, it lacks a genetic or kinetic element. Mr. Rosenhaupt seems to feel that himself when he cautiously and perhaps too conscientiously refrains from a comparison with other periods, through which his era might be contrasted and complemented. But it would be unjust to expect what the study purposely excludes and to dwell on unfulfilled demands, when it enriches our knowledge with such excellent descriptions as are given especially in chapters v, vi, and viii and such epigrammatic characterizations as for instance that of Pirandello on page 127.

ERNST FEISE

*The Johns Hopkins University,
Baltimore, Maryland*

SCHAEPLI, E., *Kriminalkommissar Hornleights Erlebnisse*, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940.

This booklet represents a collection of eight adventures of Crime Inspector Hornleigh of Scotland Yard who has been popularized in a series of British Broadcasts. Each adventure, comprising on an average 9 pages, contains within its unfoldment the clue to the solution of the case in the form of some unguarded act or word on the part of certain persons. The material offers a great deal of attraction to the students, as the reviewer was well able to observe in his own classes. The mere desire to find out who the guilty person or persons are encourages the student to read more than was originally assigned. The language is so simple and direct that these readings can be used advantageously at the end of the first year or at the beginning of the second year of German in college.

To ensure quick reading the entire booklet is printed in Roman type. Inspector Hornleigh's adventures are, indeed, very appropriate to chase away "classroom tension."

PHELPS, WILLIAM G., *Lessing, the Champion of Universal Brotherhood*, published by the Centenary College of Louisiana, Shreveport, La., 1939, 38 pages, price, 40 cents.

The author sets out in an introductory chapter to show how Gotthold Ephraim Lessing developed into the champion of tolerance, equality of rights, and universal brotherhood when he broke the yoke of that spiritual tyranny which since the beginning of the 18th century had lain so heavily on the German states. In the following chapters a discussion of the principal works and writings of Lessing reveals how Lessing fought for the ideals of a harmonious and happy society. The battle which Lessing waged in defense of a saner and more enlightened attitude is compared to that of Adolf Hitler who is represented, by virtue of a philosophy of hate and greed, as defying everything for which religion, culture, and democracy stand. In the final chapter the author proceeds to draw attention to the fact that we must mobilize all our moral and spiritual resources in order to be able to wage our battle in defense of Democracy which has its roots in the benevolent attitude of man to man.

Thus, Lessing is presented to us as "a soldier in the Liberation War of humanity" and as a man who had been chastened by grievous suffering and bitter conflict.

EUGEN HARTMUTH MUELLER

*Ohio University,
Athens, Ohio*

PUSEY, W. W., *Louis-Sébastien Mercier in Germany*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Price, \$2.50.

Although Louis-Sébastien Mercier (1740-1814) is best known for his *Tableau de Paris*, he was also the author of numerous *dramas bourgeois* in the vein of Diderot, imitated from the German and English, and in turn influencing the German theater. He also theorized in his

Traité du théâtre ou nouvel essai sur l'art dramatique (1773). W. W. Pusey here gives a succinct account of Mercier's life and works, together with his influence particularly on Wieland, Goethe, Schiller and Lessing. He finds Mercier most influential in about 1785, counts 75 editions in German, and detects distinct influences in Goethe's *Theatralische Sendung* and elsewhere. Influence is chiefly felt in the realm of tolerance, humanitarianism, democracy and the rights of emotion, but it is "often difficult to distinguish between an influence of Diderot, Rousseau, Lessing or Mercier." On the other hand Mercier should be noted by French students as exceptional in being "willing to admit that German literature existed at all." The bibliography is fulsome, especially on the German side, and the work as a whole should be of use in matters of detail to students of both the German and French theaters.

JAMES VAN NOSTRAN RICE

Ohio University,
Athens, Ohio

Goethe's Works with the Exception of Faust. A Catalogue compiled by Members of the Yale University Library Staff. Edited, arranged and supplied with literary notes and preceded by an introduction and a biographical sketch of William A. Speck by Carl Frederick Schreiber. New Haven: Yale University Press. London: Humphrey Milford. Oxford University Press, 1940. Price, \$10.00.

This splendid quarto volume of three hundred pages, handsomely illustrated and provided with an introduction as well as a moving biography of William A. Speck, is a credit to all those who helped in its compilation. It represents a vast amount of labor over a period of more than ten years. Of particular value are its descriptions of first and rare editions. Arranged primarily to assist the American scholar, to whom the large foreign collections are not available, it lists also cheap modern reprints of important rare items. Manuscripts have not been listed together, but inserted where an associative value exists. This required the printing of longer excerpts, especially from the letters, to emphasize the relationship. Thus much unpublished material becomes immediately available for research. Music items are described in the body of the Catalogue, while the variety of the compositions and the names of the composers are included in two appendices. There are also numerous playbills and seventeen illustrations.

Three additional volumes are to appear, one on *Faust* (which will really constitute the heart of the catalogue), another on biographical material, and a third with addenda and a general index.

It is our hope that now, with this excellent catalogue at their disposal, American lovers of Goethe will avail themselves even more freely of the wonderful Goethe treasures which Mr. Speck amassed during his life and will invite the adventurer to the Yale University Library.

EDWIN H. ZEYDEL

SCHUCHARD, HANS-KARL, *Der Minnesinger Otto von Botenlauben* [University of Pennsylvania Dissertation] (Philadelphia, 1940). Paper.

Botenlauben was one of the minor Middle High German poetasters who has had his small number of editors and investigators. Thus, those sections in Schuchard's dissertation which deal with personal data on Otto (2-9), or discuss problems of ordering his songs (13-20), or bring a literary evaluation of the poet (55-60), have little that is new, and nothing that need be mentioned here. The normalization of the text with its notes (61-84), shows good workmanship. But in the metrical parts of his work Schuchard gains tangible results, although his analysis of Otto's 'Lieder' (21-32) is almost wholly based on Heusler's scattered references to Botenlauben in his *Deutsche Versgeschichte*. However, in analyzing Otto's 'Leich' (32-43) Schuchard uses observations on rhyme elision, synaphy, and recurrence of metrical structure skillfully and convincingly as criteria for orderly organization. And when he states on p. 43: "es ist hier der Versuch gemacht worden, den Bau des Leiches durch fassbare Kriterien zu

ergründen," we may say that he has succeeded for Otto's 'Leich.' The typographical errors in the book are few in number and of no consequence.

GEORGE NORDMEYER

Yale University,
New Haven, Connecticut

ROBACK, A. A., *The Story of Yiddish Literature*. New York: Yiddish Scientific Institute, 1940. Price, \$3.00.

For many years students of comparative literature have felt the need of a history of Yiddish literature. In 1899 Professor Leo Wiener of Harvard University and in 1911 the Frenchman M. Pines sought to meet this need. Their attempts preceded the detailed researches into Yiddish philology and literature which began with the founding of the Yiddish Scientific Institute at Vilna soon after the First World War. This Institute served as a clearing-house for Yiddish scholars in all continents. The recent incorporation of Vilna within the Soviet realm compelled the transference of the Institute's activities to New York. There has been no interruption in the publication of the Institute's quarterly—*Ivo Bletter*—now in its fifteenth year. Nor has there been any decline in the high standard maintained for over a decade by the Institute's monographs. Unfortunately, these studies, appearing in the Yiddish language, are not comprehensible to most students of Comparative Literature. The Institute has recognized this difficulty and is planning a series of publications in English. Roback's book is the first of these publications.

Its title indicates that it was designed primarily as a popular survey. The author disclaims any ambition to write a definitive history of Yiddish literature. He acknowledges his failure to dwell on the social, economic, and political forces that moulded Yiddish literary traditions ever since the sixteenth century. He does not seek to relate these traditions to the cultural environment of Central and Eastern Europe or to the historic past of the Jewish people. He does not aim to portray Yiddish literature as the expression of a civilization which was distinct from that of the Occidental or Slavic peoples among whom it developed, a civilization unique in its values and formulation—reaching its efflorescence in the nineteenth century, its dissolution in the Old World during the post-War decades, and its sunset glow in the New World during the present generation.

Since the author recognizes these limitations, the book has value mainly as a compendium of useful facts. Two thirds of the volume are devoted to the twentieth century and to writers, most of whom are still in the midst of their creative activity. Hundreds of names pass in review and we are impressed by the variety of currents and by the worldwide distribution of contemporary Yiddish writers. Roback has apparently had personal contact with many of them, for in those chapters where he deals with literary material of recent origin his pen portraits are vivid, colorful, interesting. The further he recedes in time, however, the paler do his figures appear and the less convincing are his analyses. Thus, the chapter entitled *Synthesis of Golden Age* arouses expectations that are not fulfilled. This chapter is begun on a grand scale. It might have been the most important, unrolling a panorama of Yiddish literature at the height of its productivity. Actually, however, it drags on for about five pages—it is by far the shortest in the book—and ends by contrasting the three leading writers of Yiddish: Mendele, Sholem Aleikhem, and Peretz—completely oblivious of the intended synthesis promised by the title. The Peretz-chapter likewise disappoints the reader, who knows that Roback is the author of *Peretz, the Psychologist*, the only English book on this fine interpreter of the ghetto soul. Twenty-five out of the twenty-eight pages inform us over and over again that Peretz was a great man and a great writer. Only at the end are we enriched by a few paragraphs on the life of the adored hero. If Roback had expanded these few paragraphs to twenty-eight pages or if he had given us a detailed analysis of a few gems of Peretz, we would have been more convinced of his hero's uniqueness than by all the eulogistic, repetitious phrases.

When Roback discusses literature still further removed in time, he becomes argumentative

and expounds brilliant unproved theories, instead of limiting himself to generally accepted conclusions. Thus, his introduction, which should give an historical background, is filled with controversial argumentation concerning details, important and unimportant. This properly has its place in special philological papers but hardly in an elementary survey. The space devoted to an extended discussion as to why Yiddish prefers the ending *im* (*boidim*, *buzim*), whereas English in cognate words prefers *om* (*bottom*, *bosom*), might more profitably have been given over to an outline of the rise and origin of Yiddish. The few sentences on the latter theme are insufficient. They fail to bring clarity. They do not define the relation of Yiddish to German. Leo Wiener's theory on the rise of Yiddish is apparently no longer held today. Max Weinreich's theory, expounded in 1928 in his *Tableaux of Yiddish Literary History*, is not yet known to English readers. Roback fails to touch on either of these or to mention other scientific guesses.

Students of literature must be grateful to the author for the facts which he has accumulated and which are not otherwise readily accessible, for the complete and accurate bibliography which makes further study less troublesome, and for the detailed discussion of contemporary Yiddish literary products. It is to be hoped that in the next edition—for there will surely be another—the author will revise and expand the chapters on pre-twentieth century literary phenomena and perhaps furnish us with that definitive history of Yiddish literature for which scholars have long been waiting.

SOL LIPTZIN

*College of the City of New York,
New York, N. Y.*

GUSTAFSON, ALRIK, *Six Scandinavian Novelists*. Princeton: Princeton University Press (American-Scandinavian Foundation), 1940. Price, \$3.50.

In this admirably planned and written book, Professor Gustafson has been guided by three considerations: the importance of the novelists in Scandinavian literature of the last half of the nineteenth century; the representation that each gives of the characteristic tendencies of the novel of that period; and the fact that the book is intended primarily for the non-Scandinavian reader.

Without attempting a history of the modern Scandinavian novel, the author provides in his introduction sufficient material to guide those who may wish to relate the work of the six novelists to the history of literary development which includes the influence of Ibsen, Bjørnson, Strindberg, and Georg Brandes, the great Danish critic, whose studies of literature in the period known as "The New Awakening" are embodied in his *Main Currents in Nineteenth Century European Literature*.

Against this background, Professor Gustafson presents among his six novelists three whose names are unfamiliar to most American readers: Jonas Lie, the representative of impressionistic realism; Jens Peter Jacobsen, a pioneer among Scandinavian writers in the study of decadent psychology and the analysis of certain cultural aspects of the nineteenth century; and Verner von Heidenstam, historical novelist and poet of Sweden, who is described in the words of the Nobel Prize Award as "the leader of a new era in our literature."

However, it is through the well-known figures that one reaches an appreciation of the fine contribution of Professor Gustafson's book to an understanding of Scandinavian literature in the foundation of biographical material for each author, the carefully chosen quotations from one outstanding novel, and the detailed analysis of style. For instance, in the clear light of this critical comment, we see in *Gosta Berling's Saga* the beautiful art of Selma Lagerlöf's narrative of the amazing Varmland cavaliers; in Knut Hamsun's *The Growth of the Soil*, the unadorned story of man in his struggle with nature against a threatening industrial civilization; in Sigrid Undset's *Kristin Lavransdatter*, the struggle of Christian ideals in fourteenth century pagan Norway, with its accurate historical detail and its powerful and gloomy picture of the strife between the flesh and the spirit.

Although each of the six essays of Professor Gustafson's book treats in detail only the outstanding novel of a writer, brief consideration is given to the other productions in comparison to the great work and in relation to the literary influences of the period. Furthermore so much of suggestion and interpretation is offered in parallels with other continental novelists and with English writers that the reader is assured through his enjoyment of the familiar that he will undertake with enthusiasm the study of the other novelists here presented in the "new awakening" in Scandinavian literature.

GRETA A. LASH

Ohio University,
Athens, Ohio

¡Cantemos! a collection of Spanish songs edited by Harry R. Wilson (music), Victor C. Neish (manuscript), Harry Starfield and Samuel Levenson (Spanish texts) New York: The Penny Press, 1940. Price, 10 cents.

This edition of twenty-six folk songs of Spain and Spanish-America will be received with enthusiasm by teachers who desire to present something of Spanish culture along with the language. Many old favorites such as *Ay, ay, ay, Cielito lindo, La golondrina, La paloma*, etc. are included. The accompaniments are easy enough to be played by those who have had small musical training. In short, the little book should be placed in the hands of every student who is beginning the study of Spanish.

DELGADO-ARIAS, EUGENE, *Rapid Spanish Review*, New York: The Penny Press, 1940. Price, 12 cents.

This small pamphlet of forty-eight pages is designed to supply as inexpensively as possible a brief review of Spanish Grammar and civilization. It should prove most helpful to students reviewing verbs and idioms. It contains a number of brief cultural essays.

DOLAN, G. F., *Learn to Speak Spanish in Fifteen Days*, St. Paul, Minnesota: G. F. Dolan, 1940. Price, 50 cents.

Ambitious in title, awkward in form, this is a folder that opens up to one large page of two feet square. One side is in Spanish; the reverse side in English. One could learn many set sentences that would be helpful in ordering a meal or asking the time of day, but more would tax the claim of this folder.

El Abencerraje, edited by Nicholson B. Adams and Gretchen T. Starck. New York: Crofts, 1940, Price, 75 cents.

Teachers everywhere will welcome the reappearance of this sixteenth century gem. Indeed it is one of the few books from the Spanish Renaissance that can be read and enjoyed by students who have had only one semester or one year of instruction in Spanish. This book requires no doctoring or tempering, and even though it is almost four hundred years old, the delicately treated love affair, smooth style and general aura of beauty have a distinct appeal to moderns. Exceptionally well edited, the little book is ideal to give the beginning student some idea of Spanish prose of the Golden Age.

STERLING A. STOUDEMIRE

University of North Carolina,
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

HARRIS, JULIAN, *French Reader for Beginners*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Price, \$1.50.

The text is divided into 4 parts: I, 25 short selections, pp. 3-107, being "made-up" French by the author; II, 11 selections, pp. 113-174, being "adapted" pieces from Montesquieu,

Voltaire, *Les Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles*, La Rochefoucauld, and Vauvenargues, plus some "original" storiottes; III, a "simplification" of Dumas' *L'Évasion de M. de Beaufort*, pp. 179-279; IV, ten selections and adaptations in prose and verse, pp. 281-328. PP. 331-355 are devoted to a Questionnaire based on the text. The last 79 pages comprise an adequate French vocabulary. There are also maps of France before and after 1789, and line drawings.

The author pays the customary prefatory tribute to Vander Beke and his never-to-be-mentioned masterpiece, as well as to a similar monument by Tharp. From remarks in his Preface, it seems (I ask pardon if I err) that he has been more illuminated by Professors of Education than by Professors of French, in the concoction of this book.

Professor Harris says that "it is designed primarily for students who begin the study of French in college." It is an attractive book to look at: it has a pleasing cover, it is well bound, the type is agreeably large and clear, and typographical errors are almost (though not quite) non-existent. Also the vocabulary is complete, and the footnotes ample. Even more, the selections are of a good length, and are uniformly entertaining.

It is, however, "made-up" French, grammatically impeccable, to be sure, but containing too many Vander Bekeisms crowded into too small a space. It is very perceptibly more difficult and idiom-laden than any ordinary real French prose of equal length.

The author speaks, and very truly, of advanced students who "read" a foreign language but fail to understand it, because they have never learned to translate. But with all its excellencies, this Reader, I fear, will not be much of a help in that respect. For one thing (just one), to learn to translate well, there must be repetition of idioms and difficult matter—a lot of repetition—and this book hasn't got it. Its depth is not commensurate to its width.

At the present time there appears to be a fad for foreign-language teachers to concoct their own reading-texts. I met more than a few at the last MLA reunion, who were working on such. I ask, though with only little expectation of an answer, aren't there enough interesting and entertaining books written by acknowledged masters of French and German prose to supply suitable Readers, without overworked Professors being forced to make up their own? (If not, what's the use of learning to read the language?).

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HOCKING, ELTON and CARRIÈRE, JOSEPH M., *Transition to Reading and Writing French*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1940. Price, \$1.75.

This is a most unusual type of grammar and one which should be of great assistance to students who have to translate poorly edited texts. The statement of the rules in Part One (*Transition to Reading*) often gives very helpful hints that the student never finds in the ordinary grammar. Very good examples of this are to be found on pages 12 and 13, where negation and meanings of the present tense are discussed, and on pages 55 and 61, respectively, in the discussions of *ceci* and *cela* and of *savoir*, *pouvoir*, and *connaître*. The paragraph entitled "Idiomatic Comparatives and Superlatives," p. 70, develops ideas that are quite inadequately treated in almost all other French grammars.

The chief contributions in Part Two (*Transition to Writing*) are the discussions of *fallor*, p. 62, of past tenses, pp. 113-114, of the "Informal Sequence of Tenses," p. 120, of *Le, Y, En*, pp. 130-131, and of the "*faire* causal" construction, p. 142. The latter, when combined with the corresponding rules for *faire* in Part One, p. 63, constitutes the clearest and most complete statement of this use of *faire* (one of the most frequently used constructions in French, and one almost ignored by otherwise good grammars) that I have found in any review grammar.

In spite of these very good features it still seems probable that both the primary purposes of the book (precise translating and writing of French) would be quite as well, if not better, served by combining the two corresponding lessons of each part and thus eliminating much needless repetition of rules. Even in the present form of the book, there are many sentences

and, at times, paragraphs which could be omitted without any apparent loss, e.g., "The apparently simple reflexive construction is not so simple as it seems," p. 20; "It is well to observe these agreements," p. 21; "When one uses *one* more often than necessary, one becomes a bore to one's friends, doesn't one?" p. 7; the paragraph on "Forms," p. 35; three paragraphs (especially wordy) on "Stress in English and French," pp. 46-47; the repetition of "future and conditional, of course," pp. 48-49, and elsewhere; "Perhaps you have heard a Frenchman say," p. 56; "They sound almost as strange," etc., p. 118. Some of the rules are stated poorly or somewhat inaccurately, or by questionable generalizations, e.g., "There [Indic. and Subj. tenses] meaning is identical," p. 102 and p. 14; the meanings of *devoir*, p. 62, and the discussion of the subjunctive, p. 103. Furthermore, throughout the book there are terms and expressions, which, however witty or facetious they may be, sound affected and decidedly out of place, e.g., "Faux Amis," "Le Rendez-vous des Faux Amis," pp. 3, 11, and elsewhere; "soften the blow," p. 8; "Verbal Prepositions," p. 54; "gilding the lily," p. 69; "long ago," p. 54; "painfully obvious," p. 97; "Automatic Subjunctive," p. 109; and "middle of a sandwich," p. 154.

Of one thing no one may complain: there is no lack of exercises in either part of this novel grammar.

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LÉVÊQUE, ANDRÉ, *Histoire de la Civilisation Française*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Price, \$2.50.

With the works of such writers as Rambaud and Taine available to American college students, one may well ask: Why another book on French civilization? The answer is that, at this time when the very future existence of the French nation is questioned by many who are unaware of the great crises which France has survived in the past, those who know "the glory that was France" should welcome the effort of an American university professor to make French civilization understandable and attractive to our students.

Professor Lévêque has written a very readable book. He does not lose himself in generalities but gives many concrete illustrations, many characteristic quotations or anecdotes which make men and events live again. Examples: Louis XIV's "Mon neveu est un fanfaron de crimes." Talleyrand's "Qui n'a pas vécu avant 1789 n'a pas connu la douceur de vivre." Montesquieu's "La vertu n'est pas une chose qui doit nous coûter." And the anecdote of *ci-devant* M. de Saint-Janvier, which illustrates in a nutshell the great changes wrought by the French Revolution.

The subject is treated in six periods, each subdivided into such topics as political history, society, intellectual life, etc. The author has, very properly, emphasized characteristic names and works rather than encyclopedic completeness.

As one reads through this book one gets the impression that M. Lévêque is making every effort to be fair-minded. While the general impression given is of the glories of French civilization, he does not hesitate to point out the poison scandals at the Court of the Roi Soleil, or the fact that although French prestige was very great in the XVIIIth Century, it was then that France acquired her reputation for frivolity, irreverence and immorality; or that the "intellectually emancipated" people of the XVIIIth Century who refused to believe in the supernatural in religion, often readily believed in sorcerers, the devil and fortune tellers. Nor, with regard to the War Debts, does he fail to give the American point of view as well as the French. All of which intellectual honesty will of course win the confidence of the American student and clear the way for a very profitable study of one of the greatest civilizations the world has ever seen.

One is surprised not to find a map of France of the Old Regime, though there is a small one

of modern pre-war France. The book also contains a large number of full-page illustrations and a good index.

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HARVITT, HÉLÈNE, *Representative Plays from the French Theatre of Today*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. Cloth. End papers have map of France and map of Paris. Price, \$2.50.

Miss Harvitt's choice of six modern French plays for a new anthology was determined, she informs us, "largely by answers to a questionnaire sent to a representative number of teachers giving courses in modern French drama." The list is: Vildrac, *Le Paquebot Tenacity*; Sarmant, *Le Pêcheur d'Ombres*; Bernstein, *Le Secret*; Lenormand, *Le Simoun*; and Claudel, *L'Annonce faite à Marie*. Gide, Giraudoux, Mauriac, Cocteau and the like are no doubt among the "several excellent dramatists" for whose works space was lacking. In her long, detailed Introduction Miss Harvitt discusses first the contemporary French theatre and its tendencies, then in turn her five chosen authors, from two of whom (Vildrac and Lenormand) original self-estimates were obtained especially for inclusion in this volume. Each section is followed by a bibliography of some length, particularly rich in references to articles and reviews appearing in periodicals (files of which, in many cases, would be almost unobtainable to college students). Although Miss Harvitt displays great familiarity with present-day French drama, she appears occasionally to depend too much on citations from critics, often in support of simple statements for which no authority is necessary: e.g. "As Henri Peyre (note: *Henri Peyre, op. cit.*) points out, one of the reasons for what some call the decline of the theatre is that first-class writers are attracted rather by the novel than by the stage." Vague thinking derived from acceptance of false or semi-false statements in manuals of literature leads Miss Harvitt likewise to speak of a group of "symbolist" dramatists, "followers of Verlaine, Mallarmé and Rimbaud." On surer ground when she discusses her five playwrights, Miss Harvitt in each case sketches the biography of her subject and gives a series of analyses of the plots of his principal plays, taking them up in chronological order. Of unquestionable value and usefulness, this procedure is often spoiled by naïveté of style and mediocre writing. For all this, Miss Harvitt's judgments are substantially sound, and even if the reader disagrees with her enthusiastic point of view, he is still sure of finding both in her Introduction and in the plays themselves much interest and significance.

Avoiding the vocabulary-at-the-end method of supplying words Miss Harvitt has put English equivalents, explanations, and sometimes French equivalents in notes at the foot of the page. Only "difficult" words and phrases are given, and those only on their first appearance. This task has been most conscientiously done, and Miss Harvitt has leaned, if at all, in the direction of over-generosity. A well-grounded second-year student should be able, with Miss Harvitt's notes, to read these plays almost at sight.

With the relatively unimportant reservations made above, *Contemporary Plays from the French Theatre of Today* seems to the reviewer a most adequate and useful text-anthology for the study, on a semi-advanced level, of the modern French drama, if not of today precisely, then of just yesterday.

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MISCELLANEOUS

- Corona. *Studies in Philology* in celebration of the 80th Birthday of Samuel Singer. Edited by Arno Schirokauer and Wolfgang Paulsen. Durham: Duke University Press, 1941. Price, \$4.00.
- Deferrari, Harry A., *Outline of a Theory of Linguistic Change*. Washington, D. C., 1941.
- Mroz, Sister Mary Bonaventure, *Divine Vengeance: A Study in the Philosophical Backgrounds of the Revenge Motif as it Appears in Shakespeares' Chronicle Plays*. Catholic University dissertation. Washington, D.C. Catholic University of America Press, 1941.
- Tanner, R. H., Lawler, L. B., Riley, M. L., *Adventures in Language*. Drawings by Syd Browne. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. Price, \$1.60.

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- Bagley, Charles R., *Famous Women of France*. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1941. Price, \$1.35.
- du Mont; Francis M. *Introductory French. A Reading Approach*. New York, etc.: American Book Company, 1941. Price, \$1.80.
- The Concise Oxford French Dictionary. French-English*, compiled by A. Chevalley and M. Chevalley. *English-French*, compiled by C. W. F. R. Goodridge. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1940. 907, 295 pp. Price, \$3.00

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- Röseler, Robert O., *Deutsche Novellen des 19. Jahrhunderts*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Price, \$1.50.
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- Alpern, H., Martel, J., *Leamos. A First Spanish Reader*. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1941.
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- Hochstein, J., *The Pan-American Club and Its Activities*. Washington: Committee on Inter-American Relations, Department of Secondary Teachers, N.E.A. (mimeographed).
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